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THE MODERN LANGUAGE ASSOCIATION SPONSORED A CONFERENCE IN FEBRUARY 1960 AT WHICH THE PARTICIPANTS PRESENTED WORKING PAPERS ON VARIOUS ASPECTS OF ORIENTAL LANGUAGE TEACHING METHODS. THE PAPERS INCLUDED DISCUSSIONS ON--(1) PROGRAMS IN AMERICAN COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES, (2) WRITTEN MATERIALS, (3) PREPARATION OF GRADED MATERIALS, AND (4) AUDIOVISUAL AIDS USED IN TEACHING LANGUAGES. (RS)

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# CONFERENCE ON MATERIALS FOR TEACHING CHINESE AND JAPANESE

## Work Papers

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# THE MODERN LANGUAGE ASSOCIATION OF AMERICA

FOREIGN LANGUAGE PROGRAM RESEARCH CENTER
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CONFERENCE ON MATERIALS FOR TEACHING CHINESE AND JAPANESE

February 26-28, 1960

## THE TEACHING OF CHINESE LANGUAGE AND LITERATURE IN AMERICAN COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES

(Existing programs: scope, personnel, evaluation, adequacy to meet the national need)

Lien Sheng Yang, Harvard University

### 1. Introduction

This workpaper draws mainly from three sources: (1) List of courses in Chinese language in American colleges and universities (1957-58), prepared by the MLA; (2) data collected by Professor Kuo P'ing Chou of the University of Wisconsin, in a survey and her report entitled, "An Analysis of the Chinese Language Program in American Colleges and Universities 1958-59"; and (3) information and impressions gathered at the last Chinese Teachers Conference sponsored by the MLA and held in New York, Oct. 15-17, 1959. The picture presented here, therefore, is not exactly up-to-date. As a matter of fact, it is quickly changing, and, I hope, remarkable improvements will soon be made, because a considerable number of the colleges and universities are in the process of expanding their programs on the teaching of Chinese language and literature, trying to avail themselves of the government assistance under Title VI of the National Defense Education Act.

As indicated in the title, the scope of this paper will be limited to programs in colleges and universities and will not include the special programs for government or military personnel, such as the School of Languages of the Foreign Service Institute of the Department of State, the Army Language School at Monterey, California, and the Institute of Far Eastern Languages at Yale University. These training centers are each designed for a particular purpose. They need not concern themselves with such problems as the position of language teaching in general education or liberal education, and they are not subject to rules governing academic degrees. In general, their emphasis has been on the spoken side and has been extremely successful in this respect. The School of Languages of the Foreign Service Institute provides opportunity for their trainees to become quite advanced in reading pai-hua (written vernacular or colloquial) texts and so-called Newspaper Chinese. If my impression is correct, the military programs in New Haven or Monterey place much less stress on reading. This is justifiable if one thinks of the military personnel only and always as military personnel. For a large number of the trainees, I believe, their spoken Chinese at the end of 12 months will be so good that it would require probably only a few more months' intensive training to give them a good reading knowledge of pai-hua. This would not only help to retain their spoken knowledge, but also would prove a great asset when they return to civilian life. This might mean a lengthening of the training period of the individual, but the investment would be well made in terms of over-all national need.

The MLA survey of 1957-1958 lists 23 institutions offering courses in Chinese Language:

U. of Chicago
U. of California (Berkeley)
U. of California (Los Angeles)
Columbia U.
Cornell U.
Georgetown U.
Harvard U.
U. of Hawaii
Indiana U.
State U. of Iowa
U. of Michigan
Michigan State U.
U. of Oregon
U. of the Pacific
U. of Pittsburgh
U. of Pennsylvania
Princeton U.
U. of Southern California
Stanford U.
Trinity C.
U. of Washington
U. of Wisconsin
Yale U.

The report by Miss Chou covers 20 of the above institutions (University of the Pacific, Stanford, and Yale are left out for various reasons) but adds six more: The University of Arizona, the University of Arkansas, Brooklyn College, the University of Hawaii, Pamona College, and Seton Hall University. The Chinese Teachers Conference was attended by 26 teachers from 19 colleges and universities, plus representatives from the School of Language of the Foreign Service Institute, the Army Language School, and the IFEL.

For the convenience of discussion, I shall divide the programs in American colleges and universities into two categories, large and small. If a college or university has at least three staff members devoting at least two-thirds of their time to the teaching of Chinese language and literature, the program is considered large. This is based on the assumption that in order to carry the students beyond the third-year level, it requires at least two full-time instructors to make the program effective. All programs which are under-staffed according to this yardstick are considered small.

In counting the time devoted to the teaching of Chinese language and literature, I give full weight to courses on language as such, literature in the language, linguistics of the language (phonology, morphology, grammar), study of the script (historical changes in the form, pronunciation, and meaning of characters), and the use of basic philological tools (dictionaries of personal names and place names, etc.) in Chinese. Only half weight is given to seminars in history, philosophy, and other disciplines which require some use of Chinese texts or to general introductory courses on Chinese literature in translation. Other related courses requiring no knowledge of Chinese receive no weight. This distinction may seem arbitrary, but it will give a clearer picture of the language, because, as I shall discuss below, in many cases, the instructor teaches Chinese only part time and as a rule also gives courses on Chinese civilization, history, philosophy, etc. It would be misleading to count such instructors full time.

Applying this standard in the 29 colleges and universities mentioned above, I find only eleven large programs, namely: California (Berkeley), UCLA, Chicago, Columbia, Cornell, Georgetown, Harvard, Michigan, Stanford, Washington, and Yale. Of these, four universities (Chicago, Harvard, Stanford, and Washington), plus the University of Kansas receive U.S. federal assistance under the NDEA, 1959-1960. NDEA fellowship holders in Chinese studies (52 in 1959-1960), however, are scattered in 12 institutions.

### 2. Scope

In this section we will discuss the teaching of spoken and written Chinese, and other courses on Chinese language. Spoken Chinese is the natural beginning course, as in any modern language. This is taught in all 29 programs, large and small. As Mandarin is the recognized national language (Kuo-yu) of China, it is taught in all institutions. In addition, Cantonese is taught in Berkeley, and, according to the survey of Miss Chou, thirteen institutions indicate that dialects other than Mandarin can be taught by their staffs. The universal emphasis on Mandarin has many advantages. For one thing, it makes it easy for the student to transfer from one institution to another.

Written Chinese must be divided into at least *pai-hua* and *wen-yen*, i.e., the colloquial and literary or classical, or, as suggested by a Committee at the Chinese Teachers Conference, the contemporary and traditional styles. The last two terms are not mutually exclusive enough and they are not always clear. They do not correspond exactly with *pai-hua* and *wen-yen*, because in earlier times, e.g., under the Sung dynasty (960-1279), there was also a distinction between the colloquial and the literary or classical, and I suppose, at least in theory, both Sung colloquial and classical styles should be called traditional now. Again, in our own times, there are people who write in traditional literary styles. To avoid confusion, I shall stick to *pai-hua* and *wen-yen*, or *pai-hua wen* and *wen-yen wen*, i.e., writings in the colloquial and literary or classical styles.

Within the realm of *wen-yen*, it is possible to make further distinctions, for instance, the *ku-wen* (ancient classical style) and *p'ien-t'i wen* (the parallel or "double-harness" style) from a literary point of view, or the Early Archaic Chinese and Late Archaic Chinese (both pre-second century B.C.) according to differences in grammar and vocabulary. What is generally taught in American colleges and universities, however, is a kind of basic literary Chinese, based on such texts as the *Lun-yü* (Confucian Analects), *Meng-tzu* (Works of Mencius), *Shih chi* (Historical Memoirs, *Han shu* (History of the Former Han Dynasty), and works by famous *ku-wen* writers like Han Yu and Ou-yang Hsiu. There is considerable amount of homogenity within this body or materials in terms of grammar and usage, although minor differences exist between periods and also between authors. I think the American institutions are doing the right thing in their emphasis on this basic literary Chinese in their first one or two years of wen-yen training, because it is obviously the largest common denominator.

In this connection, I wish to comment briefly on the term "newspaper Chinese," which is not a happy term, being both unnecessary and misleading. By the term, most people would mean the wen-yen style used in news report and editorials in the last years of the Manchu dynasty and in the early decades of the Republic. Actually, in editorials, the style is entirely the same as the basic literary Chinese, and it is only slightly different in the news reports in being more terse and using very few final particles. The vocabulary, of course, varies with current events, and the headlines, though terse in style, are no worse than their American counterparts. This so-called newspaper style has practically disappeared in contemporary China, both mainland and Taiwan, where it has been replaced by the colloquial style. Only a few Chinese newspapers published in the U.S. still maintain this traditional style. Altogether, the term "newspaper Chinese" has become useless, and certainly there is no need for any college or university to offer a course in it. It can be learned simply as a part of the general training in wen-yen.

To come back to the teaching of wen-yen in general, most colleges and universities begin such a course only in the second or third year, in other words, after the students have had some foundation in spoken Chinese and reading pai-hua. Only in Chicago and Berkeley is it possible to begin with wen-yen from the very beginning. This probably does not harm students whom are prepared to devote four or five years to the study of Chinese, and may be even desirable for the minority whose interest is limited to the study of ancient Chinese Classics. Also it should be added that it is possible to teach wen-yen as a living language as is done by Professor Y.R. Chao in Berkeley.

As for other courses that can be offered under the general heading of Chinese language and literature, one can mention courses on Chinese literature in general, on prose, poetry, drama, or literary criticism in particular, courses on Chinese linguistics such as phonology and grammar, courses on the history of Chinese script, on philosophical texts. Obviously, such courses are mostly offered only in large programs and, normally, only two or three are given in one institution, according to its personnel. At present, only seven or eight institutions offer substantial courses on Chinese literature, and only four or five offer courses on Chinese linguistics. The small number of courses on linguistics and literature, however, is not necessarily due to inability of the instructors to offer such a course. Very often, it is due to a lack of interest and demand on the part of the students.

According to Miss Chou's survey, in 1958 total enrollment in courses in colleges and universities was 456, with only 65 majoring in Chinese language and literature. By far, the majority of the students take Chinese as a tool to be used in regional studies or a discipline in social sciences or humanities.

Furthermore, among the 26 reporting institutions, 11 indicated having difficulties with their present programs because of low enrolments, and 23 stated that fellowships would definitely increase enrollments. Under these circumstances, it is understandable that most institutions place their emphasis mainly on the teaching of Chinese language as a tool.

## 3. Personnel

According to Miss Chou's survey, there were in 1958, 68 persons teaching Chinese, of whom more than half were Chinese. A check of the list of the teaching personnel reveals two features. First is that less than half of the teachers teach the language full time. Actually, the majority are not specialists in Chinese linguistics or literature, but instead, scholars who are broadly interested in Chinese history, philosophy, and civilization in general. This is not necessarily a bad thing, because serious students certainly want to learn about both the language and the civilization, and they will profit most by studying under professors who can teach them both. On the other hand, for small programs, this sometimes means inadequate attention to the language training, especially when the instructor is weak in his linguistics.

Fortunately, this is partly counter-balanced by the other feature, namely, the majority of the language teachers, though not necessarily professionals in training, have had considerable teaching experience. Many of them have compiled textbooks, selected readings with annotations, and published dictionaries or other teaching tools. In general, the Chinese teaching personnel has done an effective job, striking a happy balance in teaching a combination of spoken Chinese, reading pai-hua, and reading basic wen-yen, although a very limited amount of each.

This leads us to the problem of a possible division of labor between the American staff and the Chinese staff. In general, the first-year Chinese, speaking and reading pai-hua, is preferably taught by a native Chinese with some linguistic training. Of course, an American (or other non-Chinese) who has lived for many years in Chinese may do as well, but such an American is hard to find now. For relatively advanced courses, an American or a Chinese can be equally effective. For courses beyond the fourthyear, and in particular tutorial reading, a good Chinese scholar is usually more resourceful. For appreciation of literature, and especially the translating of Chinese literature into English, it is preferable to have a professor whose mother tongue is English. This I believe is in general true for translating literature into any language. For instance, I can hardly imagine an American or Englishman translating works of Shakespeare into Chinese. The problem, however, is that there are far too few American specialists in Chinese literature.

Among Chinese teachers, one can distinguish between those who speak perfect or nearly perfect Mandarin, and those who speak dialects, or Mandarin with an accent. I don't think this latter group should be disqualified from teaching Chinese, as long as the particular person knows his own defects (e.g.

failure to distinguish lan and nan or min and ming), and admits this to his students. In general, even a native speaker with some accent is preferable to an American for drill classes, because the Chinese instructor would be better able to make sentences according to particular patterns. At the last Chinese Teachers Conference, I heard a complaint that a particular textbook does not have enough exercises. Since the textbook in question contains ample explanations and examples of sentence patterns, I am afraid the complaint only reveals the weakness of the American teacher who made it. A competent Chinese informant is the solution of his problem.

Among the 26 institutions covered in the survey of Miss Chou, 11 expressed a wish for an additional instructor for the present program, and 4 institutions desired a larger staff for advanced work. This seems to be the most serious problem in personnel: most of the teachers are good enough, but there are not enough of them on the programs.

## 4. National Need

National need, of course, is a relative term. It depends upon whether one thinks of immediate need only or also need over a longer period. But, in the case of Chinese language and literature, the inadequacy even of the present program is obvious.

As pointed out above, by far the majority of the 456 students enrolled in Chinese courses study the language only as a tool. In most universities, for an M.A. in Regional Studies, only about three courses, totalling three quarters of the work in an academic year, will be devoted to language. In terms of reading knowledge, according to my experience, the better students who have had this much of Chinese, can read or roughly translate no more than two or three pages of non-technical pai-hua texts of about four hundred characters per page per hour. The poorer students cannot do even this much. The requirements for a Master's degree may include a seminar in which Chinese features a part, but the really useful passages for a seminar paper tend to be a bit technical and tend to be in literary or classical style. Most American students at this stage simply do not have the ability to run through many pages to locate these passages and even after the passages have been located for them, often find them difficult to comprehend. In my opinion, to do real seminar work in Chinese history, an American student needs at least five full courses in Chinese language. Only then does the language begin to be a useful tool.

China is a country of several million people. To deal with so many people on all levels, there is obvious need for a large number of Americans who can handle the Chinese language with proficiency. In addition, China has a history of well over three millenniums, and, while having one of the oldest civilizations, it is quickly experiencing a process of modernization. To be a serious student of China, to understand its past and present, merely being able to speak some Chinese is not enough. This should be accompanied with a good reading knowledge of _pai-hua_, and a fair knowledge of the basic _wen-yen_. And in terms of college or university training, I submit, this means at least five full courses, preferably accomplished on the A.B. or M.A. level.

Students who wish to become specialists in Chinese language, literature, or history, of course should be prepared to devote at least three or four more years' study beyond the M.A. level during which daily use should be made of the language. Actually, by this time, the students will find it no longer so painful in struggling with Chinese, because, normally after the fourth or fifth course, most students will have reached a stage in which the "law of increasing returns" (in terms of reading) will apply. Those students who quit after three courses tend to miss this most rewarding stage.

It cannot be over-emphasized that the Chinese language is a very difficult language to master, if by that we mean both spoken and reading knowledge, and in reading, both _wen-yen_ and _pai-hua_. It is at least the equivalent to the combination of a modern European language and a related classical language, say, French and Latin. It is perhaps natural that a doctorate in Chinese studies (history, philosophy, literature, etc.) should normally take six or seven years of graduate work, in contrast with the four or five years in most other disciplines. Studying Chinese, therefore, means a tremendous investment. But if it is a matter of national need, I believe the Government, the Foundations, the Colleges and Universities, and above all the students themselves will see to it that the investment is made in time.

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### CAREER OPPORTUNITIES FOR THE MAJOR IN AN ORIENTAL LANGUAGE, HOW TO ENCOURAGE STUDENTS TO MAJOR IN THIS FIELD, INTER-UNIVERSITY FELLOWSHIP PROGRAMS

Harold Shadick, Cornell University

The task I have been assigned should be largely a marshalling of facts. Unfortunately the facts are not all readily available and I am forced in many places to guess and speculate. I will only claim that in doing so I have been guided by such facts I have had access to. The general area of our concern is the Asian languages—for us especially Chinese and Japanese. These are among the languages that not long ago were referred to as the "unusual" or "exotic" languages. At an MLA sponsored meeting in 1958 we began calling them the "neglected" languages. More recently the Federal Government has denominated them the "critical" languages. This reflects a widespread concern that in a world where the balance of power is changing before our eyes and where a new world society and culture is emerging it is of great urgency for a larger number of Americans to achieve competency in these languages and to have expert knowledge of the present realities and the historical background of the countries where they are the means of communication. Professor Chou Kuo-p'ing's study of the situation in the fall of 1958 revealed that about 400 students were studying Chinese in 37 colleges and universities, and another 400 (mostly members of the armed forces) were studying Chinese at Monterey and the Yale Institute. In the immediate future the most we can hope for is probably the training of a corps of specialists who will extend our knowledge of these areas and train others in the acquiring, enlarging and disseminating this knowledge. Perhaps however the time is not far distant when it will appear no more bizarre for high school children to study the language and culture of China and Japan than to study the language and culture of France and Germany. If these goals are to be attained three things are necessary: 1) good students must be attracted into the Far Eastern field and generously supported through the long years of training; 2) the training must be of high quality and fitted to the career opportunities; 3) there must be career opportunities. With this preamble I will proceed to the first topic assigned to me. I shall speak usually of China and Chinese, hoping that our colleagues on the Japanese side will note in discussion where my points apply to them and where they do not.

1. Career opportunities for the major in an Oriental Language

A "major in the Chinese language" can mean several different things. His field can range from philology and linguistics through imaginative literature, to a study of texts exemplifying the whole Chinese tradition, i.e. to *kuo hsüeh* or sinology, with varying emphasis. Some knowledge of all of these should doubtless be included in the language training of most graduate students whose interest is focussed on China. But it seems to me that it is better for the sake of the individual's own scholarly development and of his employability, for as many as possible aspects of China, past and present, to be studies in the wider context of an established discipline in the social sciences or humanities and not by working from arbitrarily selected texts. This would narrow the major in Chinese language down to philology, linguistics and "pure" literature. Even the literature man will have a much better perspective if he is actively concerned with Western literature as well as Chinese, and his opportunities of employment are multiplied if he is competent and willing to teach some Western literature as well as his specialty.

It appears to me that with rare exceptions the "major in the Chinese language" must, outside his personal research, devote himself to teaching the language or directing the teaching of language in a center which can afford a separate language teaching staff. For this he must speak the language, read the language in its vernacular and literary forms, and be trained in Linguistics and/or language teaching methods. Such a person will often be more sure of a teaching position if he is acceptable as member of a Department of Linguistics, From Professor Chou's data, I deduce that this would apply to an American seeking a position at 20 out of the approximately 30 institutions where Chinese is at present taught.

Opportunities of employment are certainly much greater for people who have attained a high level of skill in an oriental language while majoring in a humanities or social science discipline.

I have assumed that opportunities in business are practically nil for China and very limited for Japan. (The Ford Foundation reports that of 64 former Far East Area Fellows known to have completed their studies only 4 are known to be employed in business or the professions.) This leaves education and government service. In the short time available to me it has been impossible to collect much data. I have gathered some samples and some informed guesses.

FIRST: Government Service.

I posed nine questions to a friend in Washington whose hunches might be expected to be as good as anybody's. I reproduce here the questions and the answers received.

1) How many native Americans are employed in government agencies in positions where a knowledge of Chinese or Japanese is required?

A. A figure is not possible but certainly runs to hundreds if not thousands of people requiring various types and levels of competence. Some clue to reality can be acquired by considering the magnitude of programs such as those at the Army Language School and at Henry Fenn's Institute of Far Eastern Languages. This clue also would indicate to you that the emphasis is on spoken language as distinct from reading competence.

2) What level of knowledge of the language have they attained?

A. Here again, the variation would be tremendous, but the clue here is that no competence is regarded as usable unless it is at least at what the State Department calls level 3, defined more or less in the statement, "I get along quite well in situations of daily life and travel and can conduct routine business in particular fields."

3) What level of general education--B.A., M.A., or Ph.D.?

A. The vast majority of persons trained in the armed services language programs probably have little education above high school. There are, nevertheless, many, many exceptions, particularly where officer personnel are involved. In most cases, however, these officers probably have A.B. degrees. Probably most language-using officers in other Federal agencies have Bachelor's, and frequently graduate degrees, usually, however, in a professional field of specialization other than language, such as agriculture, political science, economics, history, etc.

4) How many such employees are likely to have a lifetime career in government service? What are the attractions of such a career?

A. Excluding the military, where the career expectancy is relatively short, there is no reason to believe that the majority of language-equipped officials would not have lifetime careers in government service. As for the attractions of such a career, this is such a large subject that it would require an essay in itself. I think many people are motivated by a desire for national service and to feel a satisfaction of accomplishment for something beyond themselves and their individual personal welfare. Undoubtedly, many are motivated by less honorable attractions, but the variations would be great, depending on many things such as the nature of the organization, the type of professional activity, etc.

5) What is the average term of service for those who proceed to other work?

A. Can't help on this at all.

6) Is the supply of qualified persons greater or less than the demand and if the latter, what is likely to be the absorptive capacity of government agencies over the next ten years?

A. Definitely less, as evidenced in part by the great emphasis the Government has placed on language training in the form of language training programs and creation of the National Defense Education Act.

7) Would prospective government employees prepare themselves best by majoring in the Chinese or Japanese language or would a major in a social science or humanities discipline with supporting language ability be more useful?

8) I have been told that knowledge of languages like Chinese and Japanese is no help in gaining admission to the Foreign Service of the Department of State (though it may be an advantage once a man has passed examinations and been admitted). Is this the case with any other government agencies?

A. 7-8. With very few exceptions, there is absolutely no question but that the best opportunities for employment and service are for those who have majored in a social science or the humanities, with supporting language ability. There is very little opportunity for the man who has only language facility, no matter how excellent that might be. The primary basis for employment in most portions of the Government with which I am familiar, including some of the old-line agencies, is a professional specialization. Language is frequently an asset and may be "the plus factor" that causes a man to be selected in preference to a competitor without language facility, but the primary basis is almost always professional specialization. I would not go so far as to say, as you do in Item 8, that it is "no help" but it certainly is not the primary consideration.

9) Can you suggest any modifications or innovations in Far Eastern Studies at the universities that would fit students for government positions?

A. It would be presumptuous of me to be enticed enthusiastically by this question, although it is a subject that I should much enjoy discussing. I can say, however, that as students in academic programs can approximate level 3 or better, particularly in spoken facility, they will possess a language asset that will make them attractive to Government personnel officers, if they also have professional competence in addition to language ability. This does not mean that there is no interest in reading competence, for indeed it is substantial, but there probably is more of a need for usable facility in spoken language than in reading.

Three things emerge clearly in this "opinion".

1. There are many openings in government service for people with a good command of Chinese or Japanese.
2. The demand is strongest for people with ability to speak as well as read.
3. Language command is only an auxiliary skill. The prime basis of selection is training in the humanities or social sciences.

SECOND: Education.

Here my evidence comes 1) from our experience at Cornell, 2) from very impressive data kindly supplied by the Ford Foundation on the present activity of their former Area Training Fellows (report dated January 1, 1960).

The development of the Department of Far Eastern Studies at Cornell University has been guided by the conviction that intelligent study of foreign societies and of American relations with them depends as much on the training of the student in one or more rigorous academic disciplines as on his knowledge of the language, geography, general history and present realities of the area of his interest, important as this is. Thus the Department of Far Eastern Studies at Cornell University is in effect more like an inter-departmental committee than a regular department. With two exceptions all the professors are primarily members of discipline departments, and these two do most of their work under one or more regular departments. Similarly a graduate student must major in a regular discipline. He takes a minor in an interdisciplinary study of a Far Eastern area, and of course an important part of this is his study of the relevant Far Eastern language or languages.

We have had no difficulty in placing our graduates. They mostly go into university teaching and the emphasis we place on training in widely accepted disciplines makes it possible for them to fill posts in which at first only part of their work is concerned with the Far East. Once established in a university department a Far Eastern specialist can often arouse wider interest in the area and even bring about other appointments of area specialists in his own or other disciplines.

2. The Ford Foundation reports that up to January 1, 1960 it had awarded 114 fellowships to people specializing in the Far East. The present activity of 24 is unknown. Of the remaining 90 apparently 69 have completed their studies and of these 49 now hold teaching positions in 31 colleges and universities. Another 6 are listed as employed in research. The disciplines represented in the 114 awards are: Anthropology 7, Communications 3, Economics 10, Fine Arts 3, Geography 3, History 38, International Relations 2, Language and Literature 19, Law 2, Philosophy and Religion 3, Political Science 18, Psychology 0, Sociology 5 and Miscellaneous 1. The report does not indicate the distribution of disciplines among those who are now employed in teaching and research.

My conclusion here is that, just as with government service the prospects of employment are good for a man who combines knowledge of an oriental language and area with expertise in a social science or humanities discipline, so in education the chances are good for a man who can take his place as a China specialist in a regular discipline department of a university. Opportunities are much more limited for a "language major," and he may find himself whistling in the dark if he is not specifically equipped to teach both the spoken and literary forms of the language or to double in teaching a second literature.

A note is in order here as to my observation, based on my experience as administrator of the Inter-University Fellowships, of the underdevelopment or eccentric development of certain disciplines related to China. We seem to have too few economists. We could do with some good social psychologists. I know of only one very promising man being steered into this field. A disproportionate number of students are majoring in history, and too large a proportion of these are working on the 19th century.

2. How to encourage students to major in an Oriental language.

Since the tenor of my argument has been that the career opportunities for a "major in an Oriental language" are quite limited, to be consistent, I must revise the title of this topic to read "How to encourage students to become specialists on the Far East and to attain the mastery of one or more Oriental languages necessary for research and teaching in their particular subjects." I trust that this revision does not run counter to the spirit of our inquiry.

Our recruitment appeal can, in my opinion, be presented under the following five heads:

a) The intrinsic intellectual and emotional interest of the field. I suppose there is no field of study in which the workers find more satisfaction, more adventure, more sense of discovery, more challenge to the critical and theorizing faculties than we who work in Far Eastern Studies do in ours. The Far Eastern civilizations and their languages and literatures are still largely a virgin field for the application of scientific analysis and aesthetic intuition. It is for us to transmit our enthusiasm to the upcoming generations, to spot promising undergraduates and put ideas into their heads. Among the attractions to be stressed are the countless topics awaiting investigation for the first time (no problem of finding a dissertation subject that has not already been worked over repeatedly) and the daily discovery how pieces of the jigsaw puzzle of a complex alien civilization fit together.

Actually, the number of students whose interest is already aroused is increasing by leaps and bounds. For example, at Cornell current enrollment in introductory undergraduate courses are: General Introduction to the Far East 120; Government and Politics of Asia 109; Economic Systems of Japan, China and India 29; Far Eastern Art 47; Chinese History 63; Chinese Literature in Translation 40; Civilization of Japan 22, a total of 430. I am sure that these numbers are matched and often exceeded in many other institutions. The last annual Upstate New York Conference on the Far East was attended by thirty-six persons who teach at least one Far Eastern course at a college or high school not counting the larger universities.

But those of us who deal with undergraduates are no doubt familiar with the bright young enquirer who is all excited about Far Eastern subjects but who asks: "What are the career opportunities?" "How can I support myself through such a long course of graduate study?" "Is it true that the Chinese and

Japanese languages are impossibly difficult?" "Students of European countries can easily go there. How could I ever go to the Far East?" This leads to my remaining four heads.

b) The career opportunities. I have already outlined the range of possibilities for the immediate future as I see it. In advising students it can also be pointed out that the demand for Far Eastern specialists promises to increase greatly in the next few decades, and that they can be expected to carry an important national responsibility and enjoy the inward satisfaction that goes with it as well as relatively high remuneration.

c) Fellowship support for graduate study. The combination of a regular discipline with high level command of one or more Far Eastern languages requires a long and strenuous training. It is essential for us to be able to assure the promising student of generous and continuous support, once he has proved himself and is fully committed to the field. Fortunately we are now in quite a strong position to do so. In addition to fellowships and scholarships in the gift of individual universities and of their Far Eastern departments or institutes or centers, there are the Woodrow Wilson fellowships, the Ford Foundation Area Training fellowships, and now the NDEA fellowships for campus study in the United States. It is fervently to be hoped that all of these will continue indefinitely and be increased if the demand warrants. It is only right that most of these fellowships should be awarded on a national competition basis. However, the modest grants of Emergency Aid that the Ford Foundation has placed at the disposal of Far Eastern and other departments have proved extremely useful and it is to be hoped that they will be continued. Much will depend on how the NDEA fellowships are administered. We all appreciate that the administrators have a very difficult task. We must help them in every way we can.

d) Improved language training. The Far Eastern languages present a formidable discouragement to the prospective student. The student of Chinese and Japanese faces difficulties beyond those of the student of most European and many other languages: the tonal element in Chinese, the elaborate inflections and status forms in Japanese; the written characters; the millenial accumulation of archaisms and allusive expressions that even enter into current speech as soon as you rise above simple everyday exchanges; the very limited opportunities of conversation with native speakers, and in the case of Chinese, the rarity of meeting native speakers who speak an intelligible approximation of the national language.

We must be tireless in the attempt to offset these difficulties by improved methods of teaching, and quite properly all the other papers to be discussed at this conference are concerned with such improvement. We should be able to assure prospective students that Chinese and Japanese are no longer impossibly difficult, that we are not going to let them sink or swim, that it is no longer necessary for them, for instance, to waste precious hours counting strokes or puzzling under which radical to seek a character (when we should have prepared a vocabulary or at least given them the numbers in the dictionary).

e) Opportunities for field training in language and field research. The student of Chinese who has completed all requirements for the Ph.D. can now apply for support for field experience in the form of an Inter-University Fellowship for Field Training in Chinese, and/or a Ford Foundation Area Training Fellowship. In addition Fulbright Awards are now tenable in Taiwan. Students have also found it possible to support themselves in Taiwan by part time teaching at a university or at the American School.

All in all, we can say quite confidently that Far Eastern Studies is a most attractive field for a graduate student to choose.

Additional note: I should like to see an experiment made of subsidizing instruction in Chinese language in two or three of the outstanding high schools in the country, with a view to getting a number of the most promising students to major or minor in Chinese throughout their undergraduate careers.

## 3. The Inter-University Fellowships for Field Training in Chinese and the general problem of attaining aural-oral skill.

In the last section these fellowships were mentioned as a remote recruiting attraction. Here I should like to state my present view of their place in the total language training scheme. I propose to do this briefly as I have prepared a more extensive account of the development of the Program which will accompany this work paper as an appendix. I am also presenting as an appendix the set of excerpts from letters by Inter-University Fellows which was prepared for the October 1959 conference but was not available in sufficient quantities for individual distribution.

### A. The place of aural-oral skill in the learning of Chinese.

#### a) In the initial stages of learning.

The majority report of a committee on the Content of a First Year Course in Chinese was endorsed by the great majority of the forty teachers present at the conference in October 1959 in which it was presented. The report recommended an initial period of spoken language for pronunciation and sentence structure drill, and in the course of the year, familiarization with the basic structure of the spoken language as used in current speech and writing. I wish one of our linguists would prepare a brief statement giving theoretical justification for the principles involved here in which most of us seem to believe.

#### b) In subsequent stages.

The emphasis will vary with individual needs. From the evidence submitted above, a person whose ultimate goal is government service will need to build up his speaking ability consistently throughout his training. This will also apply to one specially interested in language and literature. One whose field is in the social sciences and humanities and whose chief need is to read, without particular concern for rhythm and style, will probably have to postpone further speaking practice till near the time of the field experience it is to be hoped he will have. At this advanced level there is no doubt in my mind that speaking and reading feed into and reinforce each other. Letters from the Inter-University Fellows in Taiwan (see group 3 of excerpts from letters) are good evidence of the contribution of speaking facility to the improvement of reading ability in terms of speed and sureness (most obviously in the reading of vernacular material but in less obvious ways in the reading of classical and semi-classical material). My notion of the rationale of this is as follows: When a fluent speaker launches on a sentence or series of sentences, he is simply transmuting into sound over a period of time a meaning which is a unity. Each successive word he utters determines more and more completely the subsequent course his sentence must follow to express what he has to say. The reader is at a great advantage if he is himself capable in some measure of doing what his author has done, before and during the activity of writing. He can reproduce in himself the activity of his author which has been frozen in the written text. The development of such ability is very difficult in the adverse environment of an American university. But once initial difficulties have been overcome it becomes increasingly possible in a Chinese speaking environment.

B. Practical difficulties in the teaching of spoken Chinese, and their solution.

Effective teaching of the spoken language and the development of advanced oral-aural skill requires more hours per week than can normally be fitted into a school or college curriculum, and requires a more professional interest and training than many college teachers have. For some time to come it is likely that Far Eastern language teaching in many smaller institutions will be in the hands of people who are primarily interested in literature or history or some other discipline and best equipped to teach the reading of texts in these fields. Teaching of the spoken language also demands a sizable staff of native informants and a supply of mechanical sound and audio-visual devices adequately housed. To maintain such facilities would seem to be unwarranted unless there are, say, twenty or more students able to devote full or almost full time to Chinese language study.

There are thus clear limits to what can be done about active control of Chinese (especially spoken) in the various universities and colleges.

I assume that they can handle the opening phase of aural-oral training with the help of excellent textbooks like Tewksbury's Speak Chinese and Chao's Mandarin Primer. Throughout subsequent reading work they should give a reasonable amount of attention to aural-oral training. This can be done by:

1) Using Chinese in giving directions and making announcements in the classroom.

2) Insisting on good pronunciation when the students read their texts aloud.

3) As much as possible having texts read aloud by native speakers and providing tape-recordings of texts for the students to listen to if he has time and interest.

Another thing that can be done in the normal university training is to have short but regular exercises in Chinese composition. The worst feature of Chinese teaching in the past has been that the student has often been nothing but a passive reader and dictionary digger. Regular exercises in translation into Chinese not only give him a firmer grasp of sentence structure and therefore greater mastery of his texts, but in my opinion they prepare him to form his utterances when the time comes for him to concentrate on speaking.

C. The substantive solution of the aural-oral training problem can be found, I believe, in three instruments:

a) Well equipped and staffed Language Centers that specialize in intensive training in the spoken language.

At present there is one such center for Chinese which is open to civilians, and that is the Yale Institute of Far Eastern Languages. I am not sure that at present we need a second such center. A case can perhaps be made for developing one on the West Coast. Such a center cannot be built up overnight. It requires a well trained and experienced and well integrated staff, an elaborate equipment, and a large budget. To serve the purpose I have in mind it must be capable of providing intensive training at several levels and tailored to the needs of a variety of students. The Yale Institute has demonstrated that it can do this excellently for two groups of Inter-University fellows whose needs varied considerably. No ordinary university department can match the capabilities of such a center and in my opinion it would be an extravagant mistake for it to attempt it.

The function of such language centers would be to provide full time intensive training in summer sessions of eight or perhaps better ten weeks and in longer periods during the academic year that could be fitted to the terms of the universities, whether they are two, three, or four terms a year. They should concentrate on spoken Chinese with emphasis on production rather than comprehension. The content should be related to the various academic disciplines. They should not undertake to teach "Area Studies" except as part of the content of language instruction.

The services such centers could supply would be:

1) A summer session for beginners, roughly equivalent to a normal first year course at a university. This would be of particular value to

students entering graduate school in the fall who have not done any Chinese as undergraduates. Like several other universities, we at Cornell have been sending such students to Yale with some excellent results. Their eight weeks has been a bit too short a time for some of our people, otherwise very promising, to absorb the material. This is why I tend to favor a ten week session.

2) A summer session for Ph.D. candidates who have completed all requirements other than the dissertation, and are to go to Taiwan for field experience in the fall. Their motivation for developing correctness and facility in speech is of the highest. They will get infinitely more out of their field experience if they already have such facility and they can get it better at such a center than in Taiwan. Group 2 of the excerpts from Inter-University Fellows in Appendix II are relevant here.

3) Sessions during the academic year and possibly other summer sessions for persons whose need for and interest in aural-oral skill is sufficiently great to warrant taking leave of absence from their own universities to attend them. These would include language and literature majors and people aiming at government service.

b) Inter-University Fellowships for Field Training in Chinese.

After the training outlined above the student should be well prepared for the culminating phase of his language and area training, that is a period of residence in a Chinese-speaking area, which in practice will usually mean Taiwan. The opportunities for a student in such residence are mainly three: 1) opportunity to get the feel of Chinese society, of the Chinese way of life, and to experience in living reality many things that are only half-understood by book-learning alone; 2) opportunity to use the language in daily conversation, and in discussions with Chinese scholars, and to hear it in lectures and speeches and entertainments, etc. This should clinch the student's control of the spoken language, and as suggested above, contribute materially to his reading ability; 3) opportunity to use the library resources, to consult with Chinese scholars, and in the case of some disciplines, to collect field data.

One year is obviously too short a time in which to exploit all these opportunities, and it was natural that in the preliminary discussions leading up to the establishment of the Inter-University Fellowships the pleas were many and urgent that they be tenable for two years. The Ford Foundation preferred to limit them to one year. However, in practice the great majority of the fellows who wanted to stay longer in Taiwan have done so, usually by receiving a Ford Area Fellowship award.

Thus it has worked out that most fellows have had a year of concentrated field language study followed by a year of research.

Groups 1 and 4 of the excerpts from letters illustrate the fellows' measure of their own language accomplishment. Being selected for their bearing on problems of language study, these excerpts do not do justice to the fellows' enthusiasm over the revelation it has been to them to live in a Chinese community and to have contact and form friendships with Chinese people of all types. I can assure you that their letters are overflowing with this.

The most serious problem that has faced the Fellowship Program in the field is the actual language training. In the initial planning stage, some people in the universities that were consulted urged that any organized training program was unnecessary, that a mature graduate student needed only to be sent to Taiwan and once there he could arrange his own language study. We have certainly not found this to be the case. The fellows have criticized various aspects of the training that was provided, but none have argued for complete independence. Many of the fellows had such a rudimentary knowledge of spoken Chinese that they needed to start almost from scratch. We were faced with a most difficult pedagogical situation and it is not surprising that with all the will in the world the Normal University with whom we contracted for instruction had only limited success in meeting it. The third group of fellows were sent to the Yale Institute for two months with excellent results. This solved the problem of the first stage of training, but having been exposed to expert teaching by people who had specialized in training Americans in Chinese, this group of fellows were dissatisfied with the instruction at the Normal University in the subsequent stages. The fourth group of fellows (in the current year) were sent to Yale for four months in the summer of 1959, and for them we have set up our own modest training center in Taiwan with an American, Mr. James Wrenn as Director of Studies. Mr. Wrenn was himself an Inter-University Fellow for 1957-1958 and a Ford Fellow for 1958-1959. He is a major in Chinese Language and Literature at Yale who for several years was employed in a part-time capacity at the Yale Institute. He has recruited and trained four tutors and from the little I have heard since the fellows reached Taipei about December 1 things are going very well indeed.

### c) A Field Training Center.

Our present field training arrangements appear to be working out very well, but they are temporary and experimental. Mr. Wrenn must soon return to the United States to finish and present his dissertation, and it will be difficult to get a replacement. The cost of running a center for a small group of Inter-University Fellows (four this year and a maximum of seven or eight next year and the year after) is extremely high. Even supposing the Fellowship Program is put on a more permanent footing after the next two years as I certainly hope it will be, no competent person can be expected to stay with the job of Director of Studies for very long. There is clearly need for a well-supported field center in Taipei which might cater to a variety of students: graduate students, specializing on China, university teachers taking their leave in Taiwan, missionaries, government personnel, along the lines of the former College of Chinese Studies in Peking. It would be desirable for this to be in some way associated with university programs in the United States, either through an inter-university committee, or through being administered by one of the Language Centers. The setting up of such a Field Training Center bristles with problems, not the least of which from our point of view is the ensuring that high enough standards are maintained to satisfy the needs of advanced graduate students in a multi-purpose institution.

## CHINESE

### Written Materials: Evaluation of existing texts, including dictionaries; present and future needs

Y. R. Chao, University of California (Berkeley)

Present workpaper a reconnaissance rather than complete survey. Evaluation part sometimes implied in description (Spring-&-Autumn-Annals style). Materials divided in 5 categories:

1. Elementary textbooks
2. Intermediate reading
3. Traditional Chinese (including newspaper)
4. Character study
5. Dictionaries

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| abbr | abbreviations | inc | includes |
| alfab | alphabetic | introd | introduction |
| arr | arranged | Mand | Mandarin |
| Ch | Chinese | pron | pronunciation |
| char | character | rad | radical |
| coll | colloquial | rom | romanization |
| cmpd | compound | spn | spoken |
| D | Dictionary | tr | translation |
| d | dictionary | trad | traditional |
| Eng | English | vocab | vocabulary |
| ex | exercise | wr | written |
| GR | National Romanization | | |

## I. Textbooks

1. Chan Elem Ch
   Shau Wing Chan, Elementary Chinese, Stanford 1951,
   60 lessons, xxxi + 468 pp.

Introd brief. Pron a short description, no special initial drills. Style conversational. Content everyday, some historical-cultural, total vocab large. Vocab/text ratio moderate. Form of text in char & Wade, no Eng tr. Notes concise. Ex tr Ch to Eng & Eng to Ch. Type drills oral & wr. Vocab each lesson given in char with cmpds. Grammar covered in early lessons, taken up as points come up. Calligraphy in author's excellent style, pen-wr, no example of printed style. Index of chrs & cmpds in Wade alfab order. Course for 5 hrs

THE MODERN LANGUAGE ASSOCIATION OF AMERICA
FOREIGN LANGUAGE PROGRAM RESEARCH CENTER
70 FIFTH AVENUE . NEW YORK 11, N. Y. . CHELSEA 3-4266

## CONFERENCE ON MATERIALS FOR TEACHING CHINESE AND JAPANESE

February 26-28, 1960

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| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| abbr | abbreviations | inc | includes |
| alfab | alphabetic | introd | introduction |
| arr | arranged | Mand | Mandarin |
| Ch | Chinese | pron | pronunciation< Lit-literary |
| char | character | rad | radical |
| coll | colloquial | rom | rominization |
| cmpd | compound | spn | spoken |
| D | Dictionary | tr | translation |
| d | dictionary | trad | traditional |
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1a. Elementary Flash Cards, 840 cards.

2. Chao Mand Prim
Yuen Ren Chao, Mandarin Primer, Cambridge, Mass., 1948,
viii + 336 pp.

5 introd chapters (3-81), with 2 long chapters pron & grammar. Intensive pron drills 4 lessons, conversation & stories 24 lessons. Style of text pure Peiping dialect, dialogue & story forms. Content varied, sometimes fanciful, vocab moderate. Vocab/text ratio high. Form of text GR rom, neutral tones marked, Eng tr of text given, char text in separate vol. Notes moderately full. Ex oral & wr. type drills, Qu & ans tr Eng to Ch, no tr Ch to Eng. Grammar summarized in Chapter 3 - notes to lessons. Index Ch-Eng only (2b will have Eng-Ch index). Recording six 10" LP's, Folkways Records. Overall comment: book records the real stuff of the language but difficult to teach and study without dilution. (See 2b below.)

2a. Char text to above, 142 pp., all pen-wr, no printed forms. Practice order of strokes pp. 136-142. Key to ex (not given in main bk) given in cursive, primarily for teachers.

2b. Pian Syllabus
Rulan C. Pian, A syllabus for Mandarin Primer (in ditto pending printing).

4 to 10 additional examples for each of points covered in grammatical notes. Given in GR, chars, & Eng. tr. Has effect of easing too rapid advance betw lessons of Mand Prim by variations instead of repetitions. Eng-Ch index to Mand Prim.

3. DeFr Beg Ch
John De Francis, Beginning Chinese, New Haven 1946, 34 lessons, x + 197 pp.

Begins with Lesson 1 at once, introducing some pron, vocab, and grammar with each lesson. Style of text simple coll. Content elementary, with a slight leaning toward military. Vocab/text ratio low. Form of text Ch Eng, Yale rom, occasional stress marks. No char text. Notes mostly on grammatical points. Ex substitution tables, Qu & ans (ans given in appendix), tr Ch to Eng, model sentences, pyramid drills. Grammar, whole bk grammar-oriented. Index c. 500 Ch words referred to lessons. Overall comment: an easy beginning bk, a few minor errors.

4. Hoc-Fg Spn Ch
Charles F. Hockett and Chaoying Fang, Spoken Chinese, NY 1944, vi + 617 pp.

Introd brief, descrip part in each lesson (addressed to GI level of educ) very copious. Pron points introduced gradually with each lesson. Style of text simple coll. Content emphasis on military, total vocab small. Vocab/text ratio low. Form of text pre-Yale rom, stress-marked, no chrs. Notes copious. Ex multiple choice and what-to-say forms instead of tr. Grammar parts very good, introduced gradually. Index Eng-Ch brief, Ch-Eng full. Recording Henry Holt Spoken Chinese Records. Overall comment: an excellent predigested course, toned down to GI level. Would suggest omission of multiple-choice tests in teaching material, but usable for tests on a large number of testees. What-to-say-in-situations aspect could be developed in future materials.

5. Kenn Ch Beg
George A. Kennedy, Chinese Reading for Beginners, 121 pp., New Haven 1939;
A Beginner's English-Chinese Vocabulary, vii + 160.

Pron given in National Phonetics and for new words only. Style of text: modern coll. Content short pieces, simple stories. Vocab/text ratio low. Form of text chars only, imitation-Sung type. Notes brief notes in introduc of the vocab volume. Ex none. Grammar outlined in notes, whole bk designed to cover main points of structure. Index: The vocab volume is an Eng-Ch vocab arr by Eng, with Ch in chrs, but no page number. Recording, spoken by Chao, at Yale only. Overall comment: non-intensive in amount, needs additional drills.

6. Mod Ch Reader
Modern Chinese Reader (汉語教科書), compiled by the Chinese Language Class for Foreign Students in Peking University, 2 vols. Peking 1958, 70 lessons, 786 pp.

All explanatory matter in both Ch and Eng. Introduc brief. Pron given in Lessons 1-8 and further practice 9-12, obviously making free use of phonetic parts of Chao Mand Prim. Style of text Peiping coll. Content general, with relatively small amount of topical vocabulary. Vocab/text ratio rather high. Form of text in chars only (with tone marks), rom (1958 version) given in vocab list only. Notes copious, mostly grammatical, with examples of use, in chars only. Ex called "home work" rather brief, usually calling for construction of sentences. Grammar forms an important part of bk. Index 1 alfab, with Eng gloss, 2 alfab, with Ch cmpds, 3 alfab, equivalences of 425 simplified chrs with old forms, no Eng-Ch index. Char study taught stroke by stroke throughout the 70 lessons. Text proper in brush-wr style, large chars, explanatory part in No. 5 or No. 6 type. Overall comment: a good bk, rather difficult to teach for lack of Eng tr (except explanatory matter, not intended for, but usable by advanced students.)

7. Shen Mand Ch
Charles C. Fries and Yao Shen, Mandarin Chinese for English Speakers, an Oral Approach, 8 vols., 120 lessons, 600 pp., English Language Institute University of Michigan, 1950, offset printing.

Introd brief, elementary. Pron a brief sketch, then points introduced in lessons; practicing "strew/(s)trew/ Chinese jǜ" is good, but description of retroflex j, p. 215 is terrible. Style of text mostly unconnected sentences in type drills. Content very little is talked about, vocab limited. Vocab/text ratio low. Form of text pre-Yale rom, no connected story, of char text. Notes talk down to student, tells teacher and student to act out speeches (Couin). Ex most of bk is in form of ex. Grammar taught by patterns. Index separate at end of each vol. Overall comment: A book written by a genius for morons.

1. Sim Ch Sent Ser
   Walter Simon and C. H. Lu, Chinese Sentence Series, 3 vols. London 1944.
   Vol. I text in GR, II in chars, III Gr-Eng vocab.

Introduc on language and pron. Pron explained in detail, no drills. Style of text formal, stiff coll; "now $^{\mathrm{I}}$ do this, now $^{\perp}$ do that" (Couin method); not graded. Vocab/text ratio high. Form of text in GR, stress or neutral tone not marked, parallel Eng text, char text in separate vol. Notes few. Ex some ex in vol II. Grammar covered in notes to lessons. Recording Linguaphone (new series). Overall comment: Text needs drill, hence:

8a. Sim Chao Drill
   W. Simon and T. C. Chao, Structural Drills in Chinese, x + 101 pp. Too much emphasis on sentence structure, too few drills on smaller syntactical units (influence of Chinese textbks wr for Chinese).

9. Teng Conv Ch
   Têng Ssŭ-yü, Conversational Chinese, 47 lessons, ix + 441 pp. offset, Chicago 19 .

Brief introduc on language and pron. Style of text modern coll. Content everyday subjects, wide vocab. Vocab/text ratio high. Form of text Eng-rom (Wade) - chars. Notes moderate amount. Ex Tone drills at first; fill-ins; tr Eng to Ch, less often Ch to Eng. Grammar given in notes. Index alfab from char to page. Char used throughout, inch-square size brush-wr for teaching new chars; imitation-Sung type in vocab and main text; handwr in ex. Overall comment: Excellent material if used in hands of a good teacher.

10. Tewk Sp Ch
   M. Gardner Tewksbury, Speak Chinese, 24 lessons xvi + 189
   New Haven 1948, rev 1955.

Introduc on pron superseded by 10f (below). Style of text modern coll, conversational. Vocab/text ratio moderate. Form of text rom (Yale), Eng tr, no chars. Notes full. Ex pattern drills (see supplements below). Grammar whole bk arr by grammatical points. Index (1) vocab: rom-pts of sp— meaning (2) grammatical index.

10a. Linda Ong and Yen-chan Wong, Speak Chinese Selections for memorization, 22 pp., New Haven 1959.

10b. Review Exercises in Chinese Sentence structure, 31 pp. New Haven 1957. Ex for tr Eng to Ch.

10c. Speak Chinese Revised 1-6 (with additional ex).

10d. Linda Ong, Speak Chinese Supplementary material, with additional ex.

Overall comment: A good course, still to be crystalized. Might add a char text, which, if used discretely, may be harmless and helpful.

10e. Introduction to Chinese Pronunciation pub by IFEL, 22 pp. 1957. Better use the next:

10f. Hock Ch Pron
Charles F. Hockett, Progressive Exercises in Chinese Pronunciation, xvii + 57 pp., Mirror A-2, New Haven 1951.

This is a practice book to supplement Tewk Sp Ch, which has no phonetic drills. Very wise words addressed to teacher and student. Drills on points of pron incl some fine points. Retroflex initials not given enough attention. Overall comment: A necessary adjunct to any elementary text not going intensively into pron as an early step.

Situation RE Textbooks:

There seems to be no lack of usable elementary textbooks at present. There has been a healthy tendency to increasingly emphasize oral drills in basic structure and leave development of vocab and idioms to a later stage. Most texts have been recorded on disc or tape privately or commercially.

There is of course an unnecessary wealth of forms of rom and some uniformity would seem desirable. The AAS had a committee on this a few years ago and seems to have decided on making no decision until the Chinese should decide on a form of alphabetic writing. A system was announced and a prominent Japanese scholar wrote a book on the Ch Language in this system. By the time the bk was pub, the system had been revised and the bk was out of date before it was pub. In view, therefore, of the still fluid state of the rom question it seems wise at present to do as we have been doing, namely, use a rom which seems most effective for the purposes of elementary teaching and at a later stage add the Wade system (if not already adopted at the 1st stage) as a part of the student's education in English orthography.

## II. READING TEXTS

1. Chu Geog
   Charles C. J. Chu, A sketch of Chinese Geography in Yale Romanization, 20 lessons, Mirror A-17, New Haven 1954 xvii + 202, offset.

   Introduc: a resume of grammar & compar table of Yale & Wade. Each lesson has I. Text, II. Vocab, III. Qu & Ans, IV Tr Eng to Ch, V. Topics & composed reports. Designed to bridge a felt gap betw (1) Tewk Sp Ch + Wang Ch Dialog and (2) Fenn Sket Hist. The textbook design of the bk makes it excellent intermediate material.

2. DeFr Talks Hist
   John De Francis and Elizabeth J. Yang, Talks on Chinese History, xvi-157 offset, New Haven 1952. 2a. Separate vol. char text (in casual handwriting, pen-wr), 68 pp. Straight text, no ex, vocab difficult. Some notes. Index vocab pp. 79-156.

3. Fenn Sket Hist
   Henry C. Fenn, A Sketch of Chinese History in Yale Romanization, xxii + 183 pp., Mirror A-10, New Haven 1952.

   Important paragraphs in Foreword on teaching and classroom procedure. Text in expository style, copious charts and maps. Ex inc Qu & Ans, tr Eng to Ch, map talks, class discussion & debate, outside reading in Eng to report in class in Ch, a very healthy practice. Vocab pp. 157-183 has chars. 3a. Char text (not yet pub?)

4. Lee Read
   Pao-ch'en Lee, Read About China, Mirror A-15, New Haven 1953.

   Text in chars only, 99 pp., index by strokes, pp. 101-123, vocab given each lesson, with cmpds & phrases. No ex, but new words are specially repeated in text or additional sentences. Designed as a 2nd level text to be used after Wang Read, No. 11(1).

5. Li Mao Dicta
   Tien-yi Li, ed., The Dictatorship of the People's Democracy, by Mao Tse-tung, xviii + 13 pp. of vocab - (in reverse) 21 pp. main text char text, No. 4 type, Mirror C-5, New Haven 1951.

   Advanced written spn Ch. Vocab gives parts of speech. No ex. Assumes acquaintance with ordinary general vocab.

6. Li Comm Lit
   Tien-yi Li, selected Readings in Chinese Communist Literature, 39 pp. of vocab - (in reverse) 119 pp. main char text, in No. 4 type, Mirror C-6, New Haven 1954.

Advanced wr spn Ch. Vocab gives parts of speech. Assumes acquaintance with ordinary general vocab.

7. Liu-Li Ch Lit
Wu-chi Liu & Tien-yi Li, ed., Readings in Contemporary Chinese Literature, 3 vols. Mirror A 7, 8, 9, Notes to A-7 is A-11. New Haven 1953.

9(1) Vol. I, Plays & Poems, xxxv pp. Foreword + (in reverse) 110 pp. main char text in No. 5 and small No. 4 type. Incl 5 plays & 13 poems.

7(2) Vol. II, Stories, xxvii + (in reverse) 234 pp. main char text, No. 5 & small No. 4 type.

7(3) Vol. III, Essays XXI + (in reverse) 132 pp. main char text, No. 5 and small No. 4 type.

All 3 designed for the student who has had 2 or 3 semesters of intensive study of Ch. All the selections are in paihua, with the following exceptions: the 1917 articles by Hu Shih and Chen Chung-fu (Chen Tu-hsiu), advocating the writing of paihua.

7a. Notes to above, prepared by Liu, Li and Grace Wan. Mirror C-10, 109 pp.
Any notes to 7 (2) and (3) ?

8. Rankin Refresh
B. Kirk Rankin III and Theodore C. M. Tung. An Intermediate Level Mandarin Chinese Refresher Course, 4 Books, in 6 volumes, with pre-recorded tapes, Washington, D.C. 1959.

Bk I 181 pp., IIA 159 pp,, IIB 147, III 137, IVa 128, IVb 129 pp. Text in chars only, pen-wr (poorly wr). Plenty of type drills, given in chars & Eng. Part IV (last 2 vols.) are military lessons. No vocab index, few notes, some sentences debatable, the language, that is.

9. Sim Reader
W. Simon and C. H. Lu, Chinese National Language Reader and Guide to Conversation, 195 pp., 50 lessons, London 1943.

Talks on travel and other practical topics. Mostly in monologue form. Text in (pen-wr) chars facing GR rom, with Eng tr below. No ex. A sequel to Sim Ch Sentence Ser.

10. Wang Mod Ch
Chi-chen Wang, ed., Readings in Modern Chinese ix + (in reverse) 219 pp.
New York 1944.

Selections from Liang Ch'i-ch'ao, Hu Shih, Lusin, Ts'ai Yuan-p'ei et al., mostly in Nos. 4 & 5 type, a few in handwriting. A few notes in Ch, but more on content than on language. Of the 37 pieces, 16 clearly in wenyen and 21 clearly in paihua. For advanced students. No ex. Would suggest separation of the wenyen and paihua pieces for teaching purposes.

11. Wang-Chang Red Ch

11(1) Fred Fang-yu Wang, Read Chinese Bk I, 20 lessons, 221 pp., Mirror A-4.

11(2) Richard I. Chang, Read Chinese Bk II, 15 lessons, 223 pp., 300 new chars introd in each book, text in wr chars, new chars being given very large, incl pron, parts of speech and meaning and cmpds. Style simple coll. Rom text intermixed with char text for chars not yet to be learned; less of this practice in Bk II. Would suggest giving chars (outside of the 300) anyway, but marking them to show that they need not be learned at that stage.

12. Wang Dialog
Fred Fang-yü Wang, Chinese Dialogues, vi + 385 pp., 24 lessons, Mirror A-5, New Haven 1953.

For use after Tewk Sp Ch. Text in rom. Each lesson has 1 dialogue, 2 vocab usage, 3 sentence structure, 4 pron drill, 5 Qu & ans, 6 what would you say? 7 memorization or story, 8 tr Eng to Ch. An excellent second course. "What would you say?" idea (also used in Hoc-Fg Spn Ch) could be more utilized here as well as elsewhere.

13. Wang Lady
Fang-yu Wang, The Lady in the Painting, Mirror A-23, New Haven 1957, 88 pp.

Supplementary reading in conjunction with Wang Read Ch Bk I, using chars already familiar. Text in handwriting, drawings by Luke Chen. Short notes on cmpds & idioms. There should be more materials of this kind.

Situation RE Reading Texts:

After the elementary stage, materials diverge in style and content and what we have now is uneven and patchy. Most materials have been strong in military and history, weak in other fields. There is little in epistolary and business style.

On the whole there is lack of reading material suitably edited for intermediate students.

A Proposal: Would strongly recommend collection of real or (better) planned but extemporaneous conversation in varied real or simulated situations and styles and subsequently transcribed and edited, to be used as study text and/or as exercise in listening and dictation. (This has been done in a Cantonese course at Univ of Calif, but not in Mand.)

## III. Traditional Chinese

Traditional Chinese, literary Chinese, classical Chinese, and wenyen will, for the purposes of the present discussion, be treated as synonymous. It includes most of newspaper Chinese, with the exception of the newspapers of the last few years.

General treatment of grammar are represented by Shadick & Wu, Structural Analysis of Lit Ch 129 pp., Ithaca 1950 and N.A.C.H. Dobson, Grammar of Late Archaic Chinese, Toronto 1958.

1. Brandt Lit
J. Brandt, Introduction to Literary Chinese--
This is a textbook of the old type, with a vocab for each lesson in chars, Wade rom, and meaning, a short text (with tr in coll Mand) and a few type sentences in chars.

1a. On the basis of the main text of this, Chao has constructed a series of instructional material (unpublished) consisting of the original vocab and text, supplemented by a paraphrased version of each lesson (in wenyen), additional type sentences, Qu & Ans ex. with recordings and conversational drill in class, as if it were a spoken language.

2. Chih News 56
Yu-ju Chih, A Primer of Newspaper Chinese, Mirror A-12, 219 pp., New Haven, 1956.
20 selections, half contemporary (mostly communist) and half in traditional (Taiwan & U.S. newspapers). Ex mostly tr Ch to Eng.

3. Li News Manual
Tien-yi Li, Chinese Newspaper Manual, xxiv + 262 pp. Mirror A-15, New Haven 1953.
This is mainly a chrystomathy of items likely to occur in the news section of newspapers. A useful reference.

4. Creel News
Herrlee Glessner Creel & Teng Ssŭ-yü, Newspaper Chinese by the Inductive Method, 40 items, text 46 pp., Notes pp. 47-208, Ex 209-244, Index 245-265, Chicago 1942.
Of the 40 items, 39 in wenyen, No. 40 in paihua, because, as often happens, it was an editorial. Text and ex in chars only. Study of single chars emphasized.

5 & 6 Creel Lit Ch by Induc
Herrlee Glessner Creel, "Literary Chinese by the Inductive Method,
I Hsiao Ching, II Lun Yu. Too well known to need description.

7. Wang Trad Ch
Chi-chen Wang, Readings in Traditional Chinese, 243 pp. N.Y. 1944.
Char text only, mainly No. 5 type. Selections from classical period down to T'ang. For advanced students. No exercises.

8. Yang Selected Texts
Lien-sheng Yang, Selected Chinese Texts in the Classical and Colloquial Styles, 6 coll, 14 classical selections, xviii + (in reverse) 192 pp. char. text.

This is listed under traditional, because it is academically oriented and the selections in the coll are also academic in subject matter. Selection cover periods from T'ang dyn. on, suitable for students specializing in Chinese language and/or history.

Situation RE Traditional Chinese:

In spite of gradual emergence of a mixed style, the greater part of Chinese text is either clearly wenyen or clearly in paihua, and when mixed, it is still easy to spot which part of a sentence is one and which the other. There is no newspaper Chinese; there is only Chinese (of various kinds) in newspapers. News dispatches in wenyen and editorials in paihua, ads in wenyen, etc. Only recent change is that mainland news despatches in paihua, too. For instructional purposes shouldn't each style be taught separately or at least attention called to the difference in each text or part of text? This question is raised with hope of inviting discussion.

## IV. Characters

1. Fenn Char Confus
Henry C. Fenn, Chinese Characters Easily Confused, 84 pp., Mirror A-16, New Haven 1953.
276 groups of easily confused chars listed, based on actual student experience. Chars handwritten. (Would types have made resemblances even more striking?) Future edition might add chars commonly wrongly made.

2. Hsia Lang Reform
Tao-tai Hsia, Chinese Language Reforms, 200 pp., Mirror A-21, New Haven, 1956.
Part I lists 1st batch of 230 simplified chars, 2nd batch of 285 chars, and 3rd batch lists 54 simplified components. Regular chars given for comparison. Part II gives the new 30-letter latinization plan, which, however, is now obsolete.

3. Karlgren Easy Lessons

Bernhard Karlgren, Easy Lessons in Chinese Writing, 173 pp. Stockholm 1958.

These lessons are easy in the sense that the formation and derivation of chars are well classified and simply explained, so that a serious student of Chinese system of writing will have a guide through the ramifications of various categories of formation and varieties of corruption. The body of bk is in the form of classified lists of chars, not designed for one who wants to learn chars in a hurry. Rom in Karlgren-Wade. A list of 273 communist abbr chars is appended, of which 153 old popular forms, 120 new.

4. Simon Ch Char

W. Simon, How to Study and Write Chinese Characters, Chinese Radicals and Phonetics with an Analysis of the 1200 Chinese Basic Characters, xliv + 405 pp.

Main part of bk is list of rads, with order of strokes, pron, and meaning; a list of phonetics similarly analyzed; and a list of 1200 Basic chars (see No. 5 below) analyzed by rad & phonetics. Chars brush-wr, rom in GR, suitable for reference rather than study.

5. Simon 1200 Char

W. Simon, 1200 Chinese Basic Characters, 334 pp., 3rd rev ed, London 1957.

Adaptation of James Y. C. Yen (Yen Yang-ch'u)'s 1200 Basic Characters for Mass Education; more of a textbook than a bk for teaching writing. Each lesson in (brush-wr) chars, GR rom, Literal Eng tr and normal Eng tr. No ex. (Original bk planned for use by the Chinese.)

6. Wan-Hsia Chars

Grace Wan and Tao-tai Hsia, Most Commonly Used Chinese Characters, 73 pp. Mirror A-22, New Haven 1957

Reviews Communist plans in selection of the most useful a/or frequent chars based on counting and some subjective choice. Gives list of 2421 chars: 1010 list importance, 490 2nd importance, 500 a supplementary list, 421 workers technical terms. Chars in No. 3 imitation-Sung type, with pron in Wade and National Phonetics. Wording of Introduc could have been more discreet from point of view of a U.S. publication.

7. Wang Cursive

Fang-yü Wang, Introduction to Chinese Cursive Script, Mirror A-28, New Haven 1958, xxx + 240 pp.

A historical introduc, with beautiful reproductions of ancient inscriptions. 20 lessons, with 15 new cursive forms introduced in each lesson. All chars (except one) pen-wr, representing 17 different writers, all in excellent calligraphy; lesson 20 brush-wr.

Question: (1) The index to cursive chars by nature of strokes would suggest a dictionary of cursive chars arranged this way (the dict of cursive chars of Commercial Press being arr by rads)

(2) The book, as is, is suitable for advanced students. How about introducing cursive forms at an earlier stage in small doses?

## Situation Re Chars:

Old style teachers and students used to confuse learning of language (whether wenyen or paihua) with learning of writing, with consequent hindrance to both objectives. Current practice in most institutions rightly aims at drilling in language elements first and still keeping the two objectives distinct after starting to teach writing. Apart, however, from special materials devoted to char study, as reviewed here, textbooks still seem to be on old plan. Suggestion: More texts should be prepared for students who have had, say, a year's study of spn Ch in rom, on the plan of Wang-Chang Read Ch, for example.

As to the situation RE simplified chars, it is somewhat different from that of forms of rom. While a relatively small number of the simplified chars are new, the majority of them are of several centuries standing and known to the older generation of literate (esp. slightly literate) persons. The appearance of such forms in print presents a radically different look to Western students and sinologists, uncorrupted by those unauthorized chars. It is therefore desirable to make available, not only in report form (as in Hsia Ch Lang Reform), but also in new editions of textbooks, to incl, in addition to regular forms, also the simplified forms, at least those of older standing.

## Dictionaries

1. Chang Auto D
   Calvin C. Chang, English-Chinese Automotive Nomenclature, 236 pp., Indianapolis 1943.
   Eng-Ch, (pen-wr) chars, no pron. Suffers, as many dicts do, from being too schreibtisch, e.g., "clutch" and "gearshift" fail to give either Mand or Shanghai terms as actually used by drivers or garage men.

2. Chao-Yang Concise D
   Yuen Ren Chao and Lien Sheng Yang, Concise Dictionary of Spoken Chinese, xxxix + 292 pp., Cambridge, Mass. 1947.
   Introd on pron and grammar. Elaborate system of abbr & symbols. Has c. 5500 chars. Ch-Eng, no Eng-Ch or index. Arr by rads, with alfab index. Rom in GR & Wade. Entries marked B(ound) or F(ree), no cmpds except those which are synonymous with the entry. Some illustr sentences. Special feature: some aspects of ancient (bezw,Cantonese & Wu) pron indicated by superscripts. Intended to be faithful to spn Peiping dialect in mid 20th century, but too small to incl cmpds as such.

3. Davidson Mil D
   Captain J. V. Davidson-Houston et al., Chinese and English Modern Military Dictionary, Peiping, 1934, revised by Major R.V. Dewar-Durie, Chungking 1942, xvi + 400 pp. Part I Eng-Ch (brush-wr) chars & Wade, Part II, Misc. useful information tables & illustrations, Part III Ch-Eng Char, cmpds, ref to Eng, Part IV rad index. Anything later on same or larger scale?

4. Fenn 5000 D
   Courtenay H. Fenn, The Five Thousand Dictionary, Cambridge, Mass 1942 (pirated ed).

   Ch-Eng, no Eng-Ch. Arr by Wade, with rad index. Some cmpds (no pron). Special feature: gives rad and phonetic from sound, grades each char by frequency, new ed marks neutral tone in cmpds.

5. Goodrich D
   Chauncey Goodrich, A Pocket Dictionary (Chinese-English) and Pekingese Syllabary, 237 + 71 (rad ind) pp. 1st ed T'ungchow 1891, Amer ed NY 1943.

   This is the most authoritative record of the pron of single chars for late 19th Century Peking.

6. Gwoin
   Gwoin Charngyonq Tsyhhuey (國音常用字彙), Shanghai 1932, now 8th printing, available under title of 國音標準彙編 Taipei, 1957, 80 + 49 pp.

   Arr in order of National Phonetics, with rad index. No meaning given. This is the official standard of pron, still followed largely on the mainland. The content of this dict is reproduced in Ts'u Hai as an appendix, in rad order.

7. Hanyu D 中國大辭典編纂处,汉語詞典 Shanghai 1947, 1254 pp. + rad index. This is a condensed ed of the 7-volume of 1937. Arr by National Phonetics.

   Neutral tones marked. Glosses in Ch. Main char in No. 4 type, compds and gloss in No. 6 type. Entries incl wenyen and paihua, but all glosses in wenyen! Has perhaps 5 times as many cmpds as Mathews D. 國語詞典

8. Huang IFEL Vocab
   Po-fei Huang, IFEL Vocabulary of Spoken Chinese, New Haven 1954, xvi + 347.

   A vocab to cover all words used in texts used in IFEL. 2500 entries. Eng-Ch and Ch-Eng.

> "We are not ready to compile a dictionary. We are agreed however that when the time comes that dictionary should follow closely the lines of the War Department's Dictionary of Spoken Chinese (TM 30-933), in which examples of use are offered in addition to mere definitions." Foreword, p. i. (See No. 12 below.)

9. Mathews D
   R. H. Mathews, A Chinese-English Dictionary, Shanghai, 1931, xxxiv + 1236 pp. pirated ed Cambridge, Mass. 1943 (with additions and neutral tones); re-pirated, Taipei, c. 1956.

   Arr by Wade, with rad index. Char. cmpds (no pron). The only Ch-Eng dict with so many modern compds.

10. Simon D
W Simon, A Beginner's Chinese-English Dictionary, 2nd rev ed, cxl + 880 + 194 (rad ind).
Chars (brush-wr) for main entries, cmpds in rom in GR, arr alfab by 1st syllable.

11. Soothil D
Between Fenn and Goodrich, Soothil, though a good little dict, is not necessary.

12. War Dept D
War Department Technical Manual TM 30-933, Dictionary of Spoken Chinese Ch-Eng, Eng-Ch, 849 pp. Washington D.C. 1945
Arr alfab (in pre-Yale), char (No. 5 type)—rom-meaning, with char index. Eng-Ch part has no chars. Very good grammatical introduc. Copious illus sentences. Entries not so numerous for the size of the dict, but all fully usable. Gotten up in a hurry with errors and omissions. Slightly variented, but serves as good model for compiling future dicts, esp. Eng-Ch. (See quotation under No. 8)

Situation RE Dictionaries:

Present need is a good Eng-Ch dict. A 2-way dict of a Cassell-for-Chinese type would be most useful.

A large dict like the multilingual Taiwan one (incl Hungarian) would be fine, but will it finish by 2000 A.D.?

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# THE PREPARATION OF GRADED MATERIALS

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### Introduction:

Basic to any discussion of the preparation of graded materials is delineation of the goals to and conditions under which such materials are to be used. In view of the government's designation of Chinese as a "critical language", more adequate and wide-spread competence in which is essential to the national well-being today, the present paper assumes that the overall goal under discussion is command of modern spoken and written Chinese particularly in the social science and technical fields. Although the principles detailed below are in many ways applicable to organization of the study of classical Chinese, the discussion of material for the study thereof will not be included here.

Because wide discrepancy in relative emphasis and intensity of training programs in Chinese in this country at present could render too specific discussion of "first", "second", or "third" year material meaningless, this paper will merely suggest principles on which a systematic series of graded materials could be developed, materials which each program could then adopt in accordance with its own pace and sense of priority.

### Principles:

It is suggested that the four principles briefly reviewed below are basic to the preparation of any comprehensive series of graduated materials, *spoken* or *written*. (The level of competence a specific institution aims to achieve in either sphere is irrelevant to this discussion of *how* to proceed with the development of materials.)

1. Materials should be developed capable of training American students competent in Chinese at the senior middle school or undergraduate level.
2. A careful analysis of structure patterns and minimum vocabulary used at this level should be undertaken.
3. The analysis in 2 above should then be broken down into a series of groups proceeding from basic structure patterns and vocabulary, through elaborations thereon to more refined, sophisticated and literate levels.
4. Diverse materials for each level of structure patterns and vocabulary should then be developed.

Basically there is nothing new in the above statement for texts by both the Yale Institute of Far Eastern Languages and Dr. Chao Yuan-jen are based on the principle of identifying and drilling on basic structure and vocabulary. Both have provided an excellent introduction to elementary Chinese. However the time has now come to extend this systemmatic approach to higher levels with the development of intermediate and advanced materials in line with the specific goal outlined in point one above.

Development of Materials for spoken Chinese:

Although it is obvious that real command of Chinese involves knowledge of both speaking and writing, and that the two are closely interrelated and should be interrelated in instruction, for convenience in discussion an arbitrary division will be made here considering first spoken materials.

Applying the first principle of the preceding section, it is clear that materials must be developed which will enable students passively to understand highschool and university discussions and lectures, formal speeches and radio broadcasts and actively to engage in ordinary conversation with students and teachers and in technical discussion in their own fields. Thus it is recognized that until the training of American students has been supplemented by some field experience, their ability to discuss a range of topics will be somewhat inferior to their ability to understand discussions on those topics. For purposes of this paper, it is assumed that interpreter type training is beyond the legitimate scope of the present discussion.

Compilation of a minimum spoken vocabulary at the above level needs to be started at once. Admittedly it will be virtually impossible to develop a list absolutely satisfactory to all parties but a useful hard core vocabulary of perhaps 7500-10,000 words (6-8% of the KUO YU TZU TIEN) could be drawn up without undue delay along the following lines:

| Category | Possible Number? |
|---|---|
| 1. Structure words and phrases (adverbs, structure idioms, connectives, etc.) including ultimately those used in newspapers and newsbroadcasts but uncommon in ordinary speech. | 500 |
| 2. Nouns, verbs, and adjectives of daily life covering food, lodging, travel, family, recreation, shopping, social conversation, etc. | 2500 |
| 3. Geographical and Historical names including those of countries, rivers, moutain ranges, personalities, periods, etc. | 500 |
| 4. Social Science vocabulary, nouns and adjectives | 2000 |
| 5. Verbs and Adverbs (like develop, rise, fall, spread, wither, flourish, gradually, intermittently, suddenly, etc.) | 2000 |
| 6. Proverbs and four character phrases | 500 |
| | 8000 |

The above approach deliberately tends to exclude subjective and abstract emotional vocabulary and aesthetic descriptive phrases primarily found in literary works in favor of a more general "content" vocabulary. It is further based on the premise that sustained orderly introduction of vocabulary and structure to a relatively advanced level is more efficient than turning the student loose at an earlier stage to continue picking up on his own. Drill on an adequate preselected vocabulary transfers the problem of selecting and organizing from the inexperienced student to the teacher. A student may waste considerable time conscientiously trying to learn the new things he has come across that day only to discover later what a teacher or textbook could have pointed out that some were relatively unimportant. This does not mean, as will be made clear below, that students will not be exposed to phrases other than those selected for his basic vocabulary.

Having established the desired minium vocabulary, it is possible to arrange the same in groups of increasing complexity and refinement and then to develop exercises and comprehension materials which systematically introduce the new and review the old.

During and after the war an excellent beginning was made in developing systematic elementary materials. The Yale series, SPEAK CHINESE and CHINESE DIALOGUES with their elaborate series of taped supplementary drills, comprehension talks, etc., offer: integrated training to about the 1300 word level. A SKETCH OF CHINESE GEOGRAPHY and a SKETCH OF CHINESE HISTORY add about 1200 more items to a total of about 2500. Beyond that the only materials known to the present writer are the unpublished and somewhat sketchy CAMPUS TALK and simulated LECTURE SERIES under development at the Yale Institute of Far Eastern Languages for brief pre-field training of the Inter-University Fellow.

In sum, fairly satisfactory, if not perfect, materials exist for training to the 2500 word level, or about one-third of the suggested goal of competence in this "critical language". The Inter-University materials are a begining on the intermediate level which needs to be systemmatized and expanded while the advanced level remains virgin territory.

What type of material might prove most effective?

At the intermediate level (2500-5000), the basic Yale formula of pattern sentence drills, pronunciation drills and taped comprehension talks with accompanying question blanks within the acquired vocabulary could well be applied. At the advanced level (5000-7500 up) drill emphasis could well be placed on fluency in longer sentences, and on timed tapes devised to force a student to respond quickly (i.e. tapes with English or Chinese questions on which only a natural interval had been left bfore the next question.) Comprehension materials at this level could well be recordings of plays for drill in daily life situations, recordings of radio breadcasts and addresses, and real lectures for development of intellectual vocabulary. Use of such natural or living material would inevitably involve vocabulary beyond the stipulated minimum. Certainly at the begining of the advanced stage students should be given notes on such expressions in advance. Towards the end of this period as their basic vocabulary became sufficient to give them confidence that the occasional words they missed would not negate their understanding of the whole passage, such notes could be issued, if desired, after the talks.

Preparation of such graded materials is of course a tremendous job but if concentrated effort were brought to bear, including sufficient clerical help to allow for example for the organization of vocabulary for systemmatic reintroduction of long unreviewed expressions, significant progress could be made within the near future.

These materials might well be arranged in a series of five parts each introducing some 1500 words. Thus an institution that wanted to give only a basic introduction to spoken Chinese could use the first sectiion and concentrate thereafter on written materials. Institutions which wanted more could use the next level. Presumably only full time centers or training programs would be in a position to use the entire set, for training to the level of mastery suggested is a long undertaking.

## Development of Written Materials

Development of written materials to train students to an ability to handle materials on the Chinese highschool or undergraduate level with reasonable speed should in essence follow the principles outlined above. If it is agreed that a character knowledge of about 3500 characters plus several thousand combinations is necessary, then the first step is to prepare the necessary list and list of compounds. As in the designation of a spoken vocabulary, it is probable that it will be impossible to obtain unanimous approval on all items but fear of this should not preclude immediate work on such a list which can be improved with time and experience.

Having established such a list, it could then be broken down into units of say 500 or 700 character to be introduced in a series of graded readers. Ideally of course there should be close articulation between spoken and written work. In full time institutes where students may be given long enough concentrated work on the language there is no reason why words and combinations cannot be presented first orally so that learning of characters becomes simple recognition of the form of a word with which the student is also familiar. This has been the principle behind the battery of elementary materials developed at Yale, and it could be extended to the intermediate and advanced levels. Thus if a series of five levels of spoken material ABCDE were developed, corresponding written materials, abcde, should be developed introducing the vocabulary already acquired so that students could progress on the two fronts in an AaBbCcDdEe pattern.

Up to the thousand character level, it seems inevitable that written materials will have to be primarily specially written textbook Chinese. Yale materials currently or soon to be available reach this level in a systematic manner. In the opinion of the present writer, a good case can be made for carrying special textbook materials up to the 1500 character level. But there comes a time whether at the 1000 or the 1500 character level when students must begin to face real Chinese. How to make this transition, how to lead students through increasingly difficult levels and styles of real Chinese is a problem which has not been systemmatically attacked on an extended enough scale in this country. It is the crying need in the field at the moment.

It is suggested that the problem could be met by preparing from the 1000 or 1500 character level on through the 3500 level readers which would basically be collections of modern Chinese articles or selections generally in the social science field. Each reader could be designed to introduce a given number (500-700) characters broken down ihto a number of lessons each incorporating a specific number. Characters in the selection which the student has not yet had should be given in notes so that his time goes entirely into mastery of structure and the preselected vocabulary. Thus the student on the one had is being exposed to real Chinese and its structure and feel at the same time that he continues to enjoy the economy of preselected vocabulary. In addition good students will of course pick up some of the vocabulary to which they are exposed.

The first level might introduce students to simple narrative type pieces by Hu Shih, perhaps Chu Tsu-ch'ing, expository pieces by simple writers like Pa Chin. Next might come upper elementary school then junior middle school history, geography or other social science textss. The progression might then move through works with an increasing proportion of wen-yen derived structure patterns, newspapers and finally texts like essays from Ku Chieh-kang or University Level texts.

It would be valuable if in addition to the above readers, a parallel workbook series were develped containing drill exercises from English to Chinese and Chinese to English designed to reinforce the vocabulary and structures being mastered.

A series of graded readers such as the above carrying the student into a high level of written Chinese could of course be used by Universities not emphasizing the spoken language. The series could be adopted in its entirety or up to whatever cut off point a particular program has deemed desirable within the framework of the time at its command and its goals.

Conclusion:

1. In the opinion of the present writer efficient training of students in Chinese, spoken or written, requires sustained systemmatic and structured introduction of vocabulary and structure through to the advanced level.

2. Elementary materials, written and spoken, have enjoyed considerable development recently, but intermediate and advanced level materials are almost completely lacking.

3. Concerted effort could within a relatively short period establish a minimum spoken and written vocabulary and structure inventory to serve as a guide in developing materials divided into graded levels.

4. If preparation of a series of graded materials is to be undertaken, the practical question as to what system of grammatical explanation should be adopted would inevitably arise. It is suggested that in view of the fact that the two most commonly used systems of analysis in this country are the Yale system and the Chao Yuan-jen system, that rather than delay until one or the other has been universally accepted, and rather than create problems of adaptation for those trained in one system should the other approach be used, parallel grammatical explanations be given for the structure under discussion, and where necessary parallel romanisation.

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## CONFERENCE ON MATERIALS FOR TEACHING CHINESE AND JAPANESE

February 26-28, 1960

# AUDIO-VISUAL AIDS IN TEACHING THE CHINESE LANGUAGE

## What is available and what is needed

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## WHAT ARE AUDIO-VISUAL AIDS?

It is perhaps pertinent first to examine what is actually meant by the widely used term "audio-visual aids" as applied to the learning of a language. In its broadest sense it includes anything apart from the actual textbook, which can either be seen or heard, and does not exclude the equipment or media used in transmitting the "aid" to the student. While it is now commonplace for language laboratories (where both audio and visual aids are employed) to be used in conjunction with the teaching of a language, there may nevertheless be some value in enumerating the types of laboratories available and the wide variety of mechanical aids with which they may be equipped.

## WHAT IS A LANGUAGE LABORATORY?

Recent national surveys show that many types of installation, including anything from a single tape recorder or phonograph used in conjunction with a language course, to the highly elaborate and functional "remote-control" type multi-booth and multi-room installations, are referred to as language laboratories. However, few Chinese language courses being taught at the present time have exclusive use of a laboratory, particularly a laboratory equipped for both audio and visual presentation; it is usually necessary to schedule the hours when a student may use the general language laboratory for audio work and to schedule the use of a projector or some other equipment for visual work, frequently bringing the equipment into the regular classroom. These facts should be kept in mind, especially when examining what is "needed" in audio-visual aids.

One of the questions most frequently asked is "What is the best piece of equipment on the market for use in language teaching?" This is a natural question since at latest count upwards of thirty different manufacturers have so-called "language laboratories" for sale, and many more makes of recorders are on the market. The latter include not only equipment manufactured in the United States, but a variety of foreign imports. They cover everything from phonograph-type recorders and playbacks using either the traditional (varispeed) wax recordings or magnetic discs, in a profusion of shapes and forms. Each of these is described by the manufacturer and salesmen as being the "best" available and the "simplest" for students both to use and learn to use, and at the same time the most "trouble free!"

It is obvious that since the phonograph has been in use longest, this form of voice reproduction — the turntable, the disc and the needle arm — is the most widely known. One of the strongest arguments advanced in favor of this form of reproducing equipment, whether on a wax or a magnetic disc, is that it requires the least amount of "orientation" time for students. At the same time, its simplicity of operation has won it wide favor, particularly where a language laboratory is to be used with high school or elementary school students, and where it is feared that the students will be unable to handle more exotic equipment employing magnetic tape, etc. There is, of course, much truth in this argument, but many problems arise in the use of phonograph disc type of equipment, and much that is of value is sacrificed when this form of reproduction is used. The standard "cut" disc, where a needle originally cuts a groove while making the recording, and where succeeding discs are pressed out in quantity, is usually of excellent quality as a reproduction and essentially quite cheap when produced in quantity; nevertheless, this was designed for limited playing rather than for the constant repeat and re-repeat process of the language laboratory. The life of one of these recordings is of necessity short, while deterioration of sound quality and rise in surface noise level are very rapid. There are additional problems such as weight of the records, their bulk which makes storage a problem, and their susceptibility to damage.

The magnetic disc has been called the final answer to these problems. This disc is usually made of light plastic, with grooves pressed into the plastic and the whole disc coated with an iron oxide preparation similar to that used on magnetic tape. Sound is recorded onto the disc as the needle follows the grooves and it is played back in essentially the same manner as the traditional phonograph record. There are many advantages in using this form of recording, not the least being the long life of the disc (tests have been conducted exceeding 5000 playings without apparent loss in reproduction). Another valuable feature is that they can be erased either singly or in bulk, and re-recorded. However, there are a number of disadvantages also. The quality of recording is inferior to the average tape recording, the original cost of the disc is relatively high, and since only a maximum of four and one-half minutes to five minutes of material can be reproduced on one of the newest and most highly recommended discs, it would require at least twelve discs to replace one small 5" reel of magnetic tape. The cost - in material alone - is approximately six times that of the reel of tape. Needles, too, are expensive and relatively short lived when used by language students, and are readily damaged from books laid on top of the arm. Magnetic tape is recognized as being the best media for reproducing the human voice, but many teachers shy away from using magnetic tape with students because of the disadvantages which accompany it, including tape breakage, spillage, accidental erasure, deterioration in use, and the mechanical and electronic break-downs in the vastly more complex machines necessary for use in playing the tapes. There is also the fact that so many control buttons, levers, dials, speeds, and lights are supplied that both students and teachers are confused. It is not uncommon to find more than ten different controls on many standard and well known makes.

Manufacturers of language laboratories recognize this fact, and the trend is towards simplification both for the student and teacher, but to date it is safe to say that not one of the existing commercially produced language laboratories is either "ideal" or the "best", for the basic reason that so far not one of the many systems has been exclusively designed and built in every single component for the language laboratory requirement. Some may take exception to so broad a statement, since from a superficial examination of language laboratory systems, many are apparently designed for nothing but language teaching. However, on closer examination it will be seen that although the manufacturer may have built certain parts of his system himself, exclusively for the language laboratory, many or even most of the other components have been "borrowed" from existing music or voice reproducing equipment and placed under his label. Granted that there are no valid reasons against borrowing from another source an item that is ideal for a language laboratory: nevertheless, too frequently the borrowing has been — from the manufacturer's point of view — on the basis of economy and availability, rather than quality and performance, and sometimes with little or no recognition of the needs of the teacher and student.

It is equally true, of course, that the manufacturers themselves have had a problem in that language teachers have been unable to decide among themselves exactly what they want in equipment, nor are they agreed on the best ways in which to use a language laboratory in their teaching of the language, with the result that some manufacturers have "dreamed up" their own methods of language teaching, have then incorporated them into their systems, and "sold" many teachers on these methods as being ideal. This is not to say that these methods are not pedagogically sound, but merely to illustrate the confusion that exists in this field, and to emphasize the point that before buying, one should do a lot of inquiring and investigating. A point in question might be the "aids" sold with a system, such as tapes, records, films, and so on, which look good in a demonstration, but fall far short when used in the classroom. The same may be true of the booths or "containers" in which the equipment is installed in the laboratory, where certain selling points on the part of the manufacturer may prove to be highly distracting to the student, or where the height of a desk surface or the booth walls may be arbitrarily established by the manufacturer without reference to the effect it may have upon a teacher and his class when it is put into use. During a demonstration, the system apparently is simplicity itself; however, in the classroom, it may be an entirely different matter. It is a sad fact that in many schools where language laboratories have recently been installed, there are neither the aids to go with the laboratory, nor the "know how" to operate the equipment effectively while devising and producing the aids that immediately show themselves to be necessary to a properly organized language course. The above may be a one-sided and incomplete discussion of existing language laboratories, but it is intended to warn against entering lightly into an unknown field until every aspect has been examined; not least among these is the manner in which the course is to be administered, and what aids are available and desirable. The mechanical or physical aspects of teaching a language are perhaps secondary, except in those cases where a language laboratory has already been acquired.

It is of interest to note that at least three new manufacturers of language laboratories and several well-known major manufacturers of reliable audio equipment of one type or another are working seriously in cooperation with educators experienced in the language teaching field, to produce language laboratories designed with every component and every function thought out and developed with language teaching in view. Most important of all, the small scale one-teacher, no-technician type of language teaching operation has been given full consideration. It is certain that within the next six months, several revolutionary types of laboratory will appear on the market which will offer near-perfect installations from the point of view of student and teacher, together with linguistic and operational requirements. Simplicity of maintenance will be the keynote, with breakdowns handled on a "pull-out and plug-in another unit" basis; and repairs handled directly at the factory. Spare components with shipping cartons will be provided by the manufacturers as a package deal with the original purchase. When something goes wrong, just pull it out and plug in a replacement as easily as you would change a light bulb, and ship the defective item to the factory, where for a flat fee — regardless of the extent of the repair necessary — the repaired unit or a replacement will be mailed back at once. This form of "remote" maintenance is not only definitely necessary for the small language laboratory which cannot maintain a repair technician, but would be economical under all circumstances for both the manufacturer and the user, since, once a manufacturer has produced a satisfactory and relatively trouble-free piece of equipment, it would be advantageous to him to supply a few spare components on a "mail in for repair" basis, rather than set up an elaborate dealer-servicing agency network across the country. Several reputable concerns have indicated their intentions of establishing this sort of operation, and insistence on the part of the purchaser will make it an eventuality.

With the realization of "ideal" language laboratories in the immediate future, have we the materials or aids to go with them, so that they may be utilized to the fullest possible advantage? The answer is still "no," and this applies not only to the Chinese language, with which this paper is concerned, but is true for most languages now being taught in the United States, judging from papers presented at recent language conferences.

Fortunately, in the field of visual presentation there is much less confusion. Visual aids should rightly embody, in a broad sense, everything from blackboard type presentation through the flannel-graph or magnetic board (where figures or drawings can be placed at random on a metal board by affixing minute magnets to the underside) and includes maps and charts, pictographs, etc. But for the purposes of this paper, we will cover only films, filmstrips, and slides, together with the so-called opaque projectors. Within this area, including the magnetic board, which can be used effectively in the presentation of grammatical patterns or tableaux scenes, there is a wide variety of good equipment available, much of it readily adaptable for the presentation of language aids.

Film projectors utilizing the traditional optical sound track as well as the newer magnetic sound track are available in several sizes and prices. The magnetic application of sound is accomplished through a relatively inexpensive process of applying a magnetic oxide stripe to the film itself. Both edges of the film have to be treated to preserve "balance" of the film. The stripe may be in several widths; the greater the width, the better the sound reproduction, but even the narrowest width is fully adequate, and with this narrow stripe it is possible to preserve (within limitations) the original optical track. The advantages of this type of presentation will be enumerated below, but are fairly obvious.

Slide or filmstrip projectors have become highly mechanized and can be utilized with either drawings or photographs with minimal attention from the operator. Of still greater interest are the combination tape-recorder-projectors, where a running sound track can be recorded on tape and synchronized with a "beep" signal on the tape changing the slides being projected. This offers considerable scope in the field of language presentation, and experiments are being carried out to determine the effectiveness of this medium, not only in visually presenting the language either in stick figures, line drawings, or sketches, as well as characters and phonetic symbols of the written language, but also in giving them "life" by simultaneously presenting the actual sound to go with them. Of course, a wide variety of applications exists in this presentation, i.e. picture with sound, followed by picture without sound to allow student participation. Later, a testing program might be administered in a multiple choice or similar form, or perhaps in actual oral response if administered in the language laboratory, where a student could record his answers or responses on tape. The possibilities are unlimited.

Opaque projectors are essentially a mechanism or series of mirrors and lenses whereby material laid on a well lighted surface is reflected onto a screen or onto the ceiling. They are adaptable to projecting any type of image from a photograph to a page from a book, and can in some cases be utilized to project the actual drawing or writing while it is being carried out by the instructor; this is particularly true of what is known as the "overhead projector."

Models are not new in the language teaching field and can be a very effective part of a course. One serious drawback in the use of this type of aid is the space required to display them adequately, particularly when spread out in the form of a model town or airfield. They tend to deteriorate rapidly with use, being relatively flimsy in construction.

A possible variant, including most of the salient features except the third dimension, would be a town or airfield painted in outline on a large metal-surfaced board mounted on a central pivot in such a way that both sides could be utilized. Identifying features of the town or airfield would be indicated in English on the board itself, and the foreign language equivalent, written either in romanized form or character form (depending on the level of student achievement) could be prepared in advance and mounted on small magnetized bars. A student could then be assigned the class exercise of selecting from a jumbled group on a corner of the board the appropriate label for any given feature in the town (hotel, bar, restaurant, school) and a second student could move a "Mr. X" on a tour of the town, utilizing means of both public and private transportation and describing in the foreign language his every activity. Other members of the class might be assigned a specific feature of the town to describe, such as activities associated with each feature: transients in a hotel, students in a school, travellers in a railway station, police or firemen's duties. As vocabulary is learned it can be applied in a variety of ways using the model as a "prop" in drill classes and a focus of student attention. Such models further lend themselves to the adaptation of stories by teacher and student with vocabulary growth readily taken care of, as well as question and answer sessions. (Incidentally, the magnetic board also lends itself very well to use as a scheduling board in assigning both teachers and students into various language sessions. The board can be prepared either on a daily or weekly basis, and can be painted into a pattern to represent the days of the week, or a layout diagram of the school or sound laboratory.)

## What audio-visual aids are available for use with this equipment?

In addition to the actual physical equipment used in a language laboratory, or in language teaching as a whole, what aids to teaching and presentation are available and where can they be found? The answer is that almost nothing is available through commercial channels, either in audio or visual aids, apart from what might be termed "bare essentials". A few language schools have prepared certain materials in a systematic manner, but the schools themselves have neither the time nor the staff available to prepare these materials for outside distribution. Since much of this material was prepared by individual teachers to be utilized in their own classes, it is seldom adaptable to use in other classes under the same closely controlled conditions for which it was designed.

Sound recordings, both standard phonograph recordings or magnetic tape recordings, are commercially available for some of the better known Chinese language textbooks, and for some of the highly publicized and so-called "canned" self-taught language courses. Unfortunately, quite apart from pedagogical doubts as to the soundness of the latter as a language learning method, and the somewhat haphazard and unsystematic presentation of vocabulary and structure patterns in some of the former, the recordings themselves are frequently inadequate for the job. For the most part they barely encompass the textual material, with little or no drill or illustrative materials for the student to work on. In other words, the student is told how, but not shown how. In addition, in the selection of speakers to voice these texts -- and this is particularly true in the case of the "canned" variety of course materials--the speaker has often been chosen merely by nationality, without reference to his ability or inability to speak the language in the recognizedly acceptable standard forms. Thus, strong "provincialism" is frequently evident, to the confusion of the student. Quality of the recordings is sometimes inferior, both from a technical standpoint as well as fidelity or plain "hearability." Speakers occasionally are rank amateurs, unfamiliar with the text and failing to give proper emphasis or intonation. Professional supervision was apparently lacking in many instances. For example, in the recordings of one well known textbook, ingenuity and a considerable display of histrionics is evident throughout. Nevertheless, during pauses specifically left for student participation, the recordings are spoiled by the very audible sound of the speaker counting off the seconds between each statement--disturbing, to say the least.

In addition to the few items available above, an effort has been made by one manufacturer of language laboratories to introduce Chinese language tapes labeled for the intermediate student. Here again, although the effort was admirable, there was evidently no liaison with knowledgeable people in the field. The material is prepared in an apparently haphazard manner, with little reference to word frequency, and a highly provincial form of speech and style is often employed. This may have value in specific applications, but is questionable for use in a general language teaching field. In addition, the series of tapes is extremely expensive and quite out of reach of the average budget.

A number of the leading universities have in their own tape libraries relatively large selections of Chinese language tapes. These are primarily associated with the teaching of the written language rather than the spoken, and consist of readings of Chinese literature, at various levels. At the Institute of Far Eastern Languages, Yale University, a fairly wide selection of Chinese language radio broadcasts have been taped and are available for advanced students studying at the Institute. So far they are not available for outside distribution. It is anticipated that Chinese character transcripts of each will be available at a later date. They could thus be used either as an aid in learning the characters by listening to the tape, or vice versa, as an aid to advanced comprehension by following the script.

Visual Aids - The picture is black concerning the availability of audio aids, but is blacker still in the visual aid field. Although it is known that various experiments have been conducted in the filming of elementary teaching materials, both for slides, film-strips and movie projection, apparently none have reached the stage where they are considered to be ready for distribution. A mere handful of commercially produced movie shorts are available with Chinese Mandarin sound track, but the terminology is far too sophisticated for all but the most advanced students of the Chinese language. Efforts have been made to locate full length Chinese language "feature" films from Taiwan and Hongkong. Such films are available but only in the 35 mm. size, and the cost is prohibitive for the average budget, and screening difficult, since few schools are equipped to project 35 mm. film. From time to time in the past, some of these films were shown in Chinese theatres in New York, and through private arrangements with the theatre managers, the films became available for screening at the Institute of Far Eastern Languages at Yale. A theatre was secured for the showing, and the films proved to be a great attraction and to have great value for Chinese language students of all levels. The film quality did not quite approach the Hollywood level, nor was the sound track comparable to the standards we have come to expect, but was nevertheless quite acceptable and fully audible.

Speed Reading - Experiments are being conducted at the Institute of Far Eastern Languages in the use of film projection of reading materials in the Chinese language. At present, READ CHINESE Book I has been filmed, together with drill materials on the individual characters and combinations of characters. The approach is to use these films in conjunction with the Perceptoscope projector, manufactured by the Perceptual Development Laboratories in St. Louis, Missouri. Basically, the projector is a multi-purpose piece of equipment, allowing projection of a full page of text, a line by line, or word by word controlled reading of the same page (with variable speed adjustment). It can be utilized for spot or flash showing of individual words or groups of words to encourage rapid recognition of characters. (This is similar to the method used during World War II for rapid aircraft recognition.) While yet in an experimental stage, it nevertheless shows considerable promise, and studies are being made to determine the most desirable operational speeds and the achievement that can be expected on the part of the student.

## WHAT IS NEEDED IN THE AUDIO-VISUAL FIELD?

What has been written above is not an exhaustive examination of what is available in audio-visual aids; it has merely covered those aspects which are available to the casual enquirer. Possibly one of the first needs in this field is a questionnaire distributed to institutions engaged in the teaching of the Chinese language to determine what, if any, audio-visual aids such institutions have; 2) Where these were acquired; 3) What aids being utilized were designed and produced by the institution in question; 4) Availability of such aids to other interested groups, and so on. In this way we might more accurately assess the current availatility of materials. A committee could be set up to institute this inquiry and to examine the results when they become available. It might be profitable while making the enquiries to solicit suggestions as to the types of audio-visual aids most needed by each institution as a guide in securing the same. This might take the form of a list of proposed aids, requiring on the part of the individual completing the questionnaire a mere check mark to indicate approval or disapproval, with a space for general remarks or suggestions.

Student reaction and frequent queries received at the IFEL suggest some of the following audio-visual aids as basic needs:

1) The widest possible selection of tape-recorded drills, comprehension exercises, substitution exercises, pattern and structure exercises, together with testing materials, covering every lesson and every phase of such Chinese language textbooks available at the present time, or, since this might be too large an order, covering those textbooks determined to be in most general use.

Since standardization of textbooks would be difficult to bring about, it is evident that preparation of the above suggested materials could hardly be undertaken by one central organization, and would have to be left largely to the discretion and skill of those individuals and groups using the various texts. However, to assure some standardization of effort and results, types or examples of drill and practice materials found by various teaching groups to be most effective might be provided by a central organization as suggested guides. Further, since many smaller institutions have few or no facilities for recording audio materials or reproducing visual aids, considerable impetus might be given to such efforts by providing at a nominal fee a central recording and reproduction bureau where prepared materials could be "voiced", copied, and catalogued, and at the same time given wider circulation than it otherwise might receive.

2) The above suggestion covers primarily elementary materials in the teaching of the Chinese spoken language, since few institutions go much further than this. However, as more students acquire a basic ability in the language, their needs for further and more advanced practice materials become apparent. It is suggested that a central library be formed, covering the widest possible selection of tape-recorded comprehension materials in the field of Chinese language radio broadcasts—news, drama, humor, dialogue, music, and so on. Similar tape libraries exist for European languages; why not for Chinese? As these materials become available, they should be evaluated and graded as to student achievement levels, and publicized to various institutions with Chinese language programs.

3) Films: A start might be made in setting up something similar in the way of a film library by securing a selection of Chinese language full-length movie features, and having them copied to 16 mm. size, then made available either on a purchase or rental basis. Since the above would be largely suitable for more advanced students, a program should be instituted for the preparation of movie shorts with graded Chinese language sound track, employing the above mentioned magnetic track for reasons of economy. For example, the IFEL has a selection of 16 mm. films on a variety of subjects: comedy, travelogues, documentaries, etc. By a careful evaluation of the picture content and a study of vocabulary level, sound tracks have been made which have both continuity and full descriptive value. These are used as review of acquired terminology. Something of this sort might be prepared for distribution. These can be developed for any desired level by utilizing a series of pre-recorded master tapes in conjunction with the film, and a switch from one language level to another would be accomplished by the relatively simple process of re-recording the magnetic track on the film from the master tape with the desired vocabulary level, a process which would simultaneously erase the previous recording. Since the English language "optical" track remains, it would be possible to show films of a more advanced level to students by playing the optical (English track) over the regular sound system, meanwhile "piping" the recorded Chinese language track to the student via headphones. From the loudspeaker he can absorb the continuity through the English language and over the headphone circuit can acquire new terminology in Chinese as he goes along, primarily through context. Pedagogically this may not be sound, and it is not the intention of the paper to recommend this method of approach, but to list the possible ways in which such films could be used. There are, for example, occasions when a mixed class (students of various levels) are shown the same film, and such a procedure might be highly desirable. Another illustration of something quite similar are the field trips to the United Nations taken by Chinese language students of IFEL where the terminology employed by the Chinese interpreters is over the heads of the students. However, by partly listening to the English version and quickly switching over to the Chinese translation, most students come away with a considerable list of newly acquired terminology.

One limiting factor in regard to films with magnetic sound track is the fact that these films can be shown only on projectors equipped for the magnetic sound playback. Since these projectors are more expensive than the regular type, availability of a projector might be something of a problem. Due to the weight and fragility of these projectors, rental facilities provided from the same central location providing the films would be something of a problem.

4) Magnetic boards utilized in lieu of classroom "model towns" have been mentioned above. Preparation of such boards would be a relatively minor problem and could be done by any school interested in using this type of visual aid. However, in conjunction with these, the preparation of a handbook giving suggested model layouts, would be of inestimable value. As a further assist

to the language teacher, an additional handbook could be prepared covering the various textbooks in use, giving suggested topical and conversational outlines to be used in conjunction with the models, on a lesson by lesson basis. Teachers with experience in this field or showing particular ingenuity could be encouraged to contribute their classroom exercises. In addition, there are a variety of helpful hints that could be exchanged between language instructors in regard to both oral and written testing methods and suggestions for evaluation of the same.

5) Language laboratories are related very closely to the entire picture. Frequent requests for information on laboratory operation and preparation of audio aids emphasize the need for handbooks describing the operation of a laboratory and its various capabilities as well as detailing the problems and difficulties met with in operating a language laboratory and how best to overcome them. A feature might be a simple "trouble shooting" chart or outline, graphically indicating to the non-technical minded teacher the most common failings of a language laboratory, and the repairs and corrections that can be made without calling in a repairman. There are many helpful hints that experienced laboratory personnel have learned the hard way which could be passed on to beginners in this field.

A second handbook could be compiled detailing the types of drill materials which could be prepared in the language laboratory, and how this should be undertaken both from the standpoint of the student's ability to absorb and the physical limitations of the laboratory itself. Many instructors using a language laboratory find themselves at a loss in regard to recording and copying techniques, or are frequently brought up against technical and semi-technical terms with which they are not familiar. A definition of these terms in layman's language would be of great value.

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CONFERENCE ON MATERIALS FOR TEACHING CHINESE AND JAPANESE

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## LANGUAGE REFORMS ON MAINLAND CHINA AND HOW TO MEET THEM

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A scholar or student of Communist China who has received the standard training of the past finds there have been many revolutionary changes not only in Chinese political life and culture but also in the language of the people. As language, both spoken and written, is the primary medium through which we gain an understanding of people, it is necessary for one to keep abreast of any changes that may occur.

In a speech delivered at a meeting sponsored by the National Committee of the Chinese People's Political Consultative Conference on January 10, 1958, Chou En-lai stated, "The current tasks of reforming the Chinese written language involve the simplification of the Chinese characters, popularization of common speech (putung hua) and the drawing up and putting into practice of the Scheme for a Chinese Phonetic Alphabet.[1]

If a person has access to a current copy of the People's Daily published in Peking, he will immediately see evidence of these changes in the language. Of the four characters representing People's Daily, the first three are standard but the character representing "newspaper" is simplified. Underneath the four characters are the romanized sounds for the characters - Renmin Ribao - representing the new phonetic alphabet referred to by Chou En-lai in his speech. Anyone who wishes to keep abreast of new developments on mainland China will need to acquire a knowledge of the new romanization and the simplified characters.

### I. THE ADOPTION AND USE OF A NEW PHONETIC ALPHABET

The romanization of Chinese characters dates back to Matteo Ricci, a Jesuit missionary, in 1605. Since that time many systems have been promoted, the most popular being the Wade-Giles system established about one hundred years ago. Within the last thirty years Gwoyeu Romatzyh (National Romanized Writing) and the Yale Romanization have become quite popular especially as a means for teaching the Chinese language. In each case the primary purpose of the romanization was to transcribe into Latin letters the sounds for Chinese characters as a means of learning to speak or read the language. Efforts have been made by missionary societies to propogate their religious teachings to illiterate Chinese by providing portions of scripture and tracts in romanized forms. This was particularly successful in Fukien province.

Early in the history of the Communist Movement in China the advantages of using romanization as a means of spreading propoganda among the illiterate was obvious. In 1931, Latinxua Sin Wenz (The Latinized Writing) was developed in Russia by Ch'u Ch'iu-pai assisted by Wu Yu-chang and Kolokolov. From this system was developed the Chinese Phonetic Alphabet which was officially proclaimed by resolution on February 11, 1958.[2]

Chou En-lai in his speech of January 10, 1959, gave five reasons why romanization was necessary:

1) To annotate characters phonetically. He stated that the efficiency of teaching and learning characters by Chinese can be raised by using a phonetic alphabet in annotating characters in language textbooks for primary school and textbooks for the elimination of illiteracy in the districts where Northern dialects are spoken.

2) To transcribe putung hwa (common speech). One of the aims of the communists is to popularize the Peking pronunciation throughout China. To meet this program, by the end of 1957 there were 721,000 primary, secondary and normal school language teachers trained in the phonetics of the Peking pronunciation. The Communists also claim that there are more than two million people who listen to radio broadcasts on the teaching of phonetics of the common speech. Romanization plays an important part in popularizing the pronunciation.

3) To serve as a common basis on which the national minorities may create or reform their written languages. Chou claimed that there were nearly fifty nationalities in China, many of whom still have no written language of their own. He urged that a common phonetic alphabet be adopted by them to lessen the problem of mutual learning of their languages and also to render unnecessary the making of different sets of printing, typing and telegraphic equipment.

4) To help foreigners to learn Chinese and thus promote international cultural exchange. Textbooks have been compiled and dictionaries are now being prepared for people of other countries to learn Chinese.

5) To solve the problem of transcribing the names of persons and places, and scientific terms.

It is obvious that those who are teaching the Chinese language here in the United States and those studying the Communist Movement in China cannot go on ignoring this new romanization. Much material is now available which is either entirely in romanization or contains names and technical terms in romanization. It is significant that certain United States government agencies have already prepared dictionaries using the Chinese Phonetic Alphabet and require some of their employees to learn the system.

## II. SIMPLIFICATION OF CHINESE CHARACTERS

The simplification of Chinese characters has been going on from the Shang Dynasty Shell and Bone Inscriptions to the present day forms. This is particularly evident in comparing the official printed kai forms with the handwritten tsau forms. As time passed the shorter forms were accepted, although during the dynastic period officials frequently regarded abbreviated forms as vulgar. Even before the massive effort on the part of the Communist Government to simplify characters, there already existed a few hundred simplified and variant forms. Most of these were accepted in handwriting but some even appeared in printed materials.

The advantages of using simplified characters are fairly obvious. According to Wu Yu-chang, director of the Committee for Reforming the Chinese Written Language, the number of strokes in the 545 characters which are simplified in the first two lists in the government plan for Simplifying Chinese Characters has been reduced from an average of 16.08 strokes to an average of 8.16. By adopting the simplified radicals of the third list, it is estimated that the average strokes of each simplified character can be further reduced to 6.5 strokes or only 40% of the average strokes of the original complex characters.[3] The popularization of simplified characters has greatly facilitated children's education, the elimination of illiteracy, and writing in general. The claims of the Communist government report are so rosy that one questions some of their figures. However, there is no doubt that great strides toward eliminating illiteracy have been made by the simplification of characters.

As important as the learning of the Chinese Phonetic Alphabet is for those interested in mainland China today, one finds it very difficult to read materials printed since 1956 without a thorough familiarity with the simplified characters officially adopted. Only reprints of earlier literary writings appear in their original forms, although even many of these have been reprinted substituting the abbreviated forms for the complex ones. In current newspapers, periodicals and other writings printed since 1956 in the mainland use of the simplified characters officially adopted is required by law.

In the appendix[4] is a complete list of simplified characters. One can sit down and memorize lists of characters. However, this is a tedious and often inefficient way of learning them.

## III. FREQUENCY LISTS

Connected with the simplification of characters is the careful study of the frequency count of characters made by the Chinese communists. The Ministry of Education has decided on a minimum number of characters which an adult must know and stated that publications directed toward the masses must stay within this controlled number. The list is divided into four groups as follows:

| | |
|---|---|
| Primary List | 1010 |
| Secondary List | 490 |
| Supplementary List | 500 |
| Technical Terms | 421 |

making a total of 2421 characters. Recently there have been suggestions to expand the list to a total of 3000 characters. One thing should be noted, however. In the selection of the characters to be simplified a seeming lack of coordination exists between the characters appearing in the frequency lists and those in the simplified character lists. This can be noted by the following table[5] which shows that 133 of the 545 characters selected for simplification do not even appear in the 2421 character list.

| | Number of Characters | Number of Simplified Characters appearing in the Lists |
|---|---|---|
| Primary List | 1010 | 218 |
| Secondary List | 490 | 91 |
| Supplementary List | 500 | 80 |
| Technical Terms | 421 | 52 |

Suggested Simplified Characters not in the Frequency List - 133

## IV. ONE WAY OF MEETING THE CURRENT PROBLEMS

In the language reform movement on mainland China, it has been pointed out that there are two innovations: the new romanization and the stress on simplification of characters. Closely linked with the latter is the importance given to the most commonly used characters based on careful frequency counts. What is being done to meet these changes? The writer of this paper wishes to report on how one institution is trying to meet them.

The importance of a careful selection of characters for students of Chinese to learn has been promoted for over twenty years by Dr. George A. Kennedy of Yale University. He prepared a list of 1020 characters and used it as a basis for a series of readers.[6] He also selected a list of 420 most frequently recurring characters in Classical Chinese. This is particularly helpful to students studying Mencius where the recurrences of the 420 characters account for 84 percent of the total text of Mencius. These two lists and the 2421 character list of the Communists are included in a booklet, "Minimum Vocabularies of Written Chinese".[7]

The Yale Institute of Far Eastern Languages has inaugurated a series of readers based on the 1500 characters which the Communist Government has proposed as essential. Two of the three readers have been published introducing 600 characters, the third reader is now in tentative form. In acquiring the 1000 basic characters the student is introduced to about 2500 to 3000 combinations or words. Stress is placed on a controlled number of new characters and compounds introduced in each lesson, frequent repetition of these in the lesson and periodic repetition in later lessons. The approximate proportion of new material to the lesson as a whole is less than ten percent. In addition, a series of supplementary readers are being written to accompany the basic readers so as to help the student retain the characters he has already learned and supply him with light reading materials for extensive reading and individual enjoyment.

At present a text is being prepared introducing the most common simplified and variant forms of characters which occur in a basic 1000 character list.[8] The simplified forms introduced are not limited to mainland China but are also used elsewhere. The book, by Fred Wang, is entitled An Introduction to Simplified Characters. It is divided into three parts based on characters which appear in Read Chinese Book I, II and III respectively, introducing approximately 500 simplified and variant forms.[9] It will contain twelve lessons with about ten pages of reading texts per lesson.[10] A person who has acquired a reading knowledge of 1000 or more characters will find this method of studying the variant forms of characters an enjoyable rather than a tedious task.

The following is an outline chart representing the plan of the elementary reading course offered at the Institute of Far Eastern Languages at Yale University.

Elementary Reading Course

| Text | No. of Characters Introduced | No. of Class Hours |
|---|---|---|
| Read Chinese I | 300 | 25 hours |
| Read Chinese II<br>Supplementary Reading | 300 | 20 hours |
| Read Chinese III (Temporary Form)<br>Supplementary Reading | 400 | 30 hours |
| Intro. to Simplified Characters<br>(Temporary Form) | 500* | 15 hours |

*Simplified and variant forms of the 1000 characters introduced in the three readers.

In addition, students are required to learn to write a minimum of the first 500 characters.

The above program is based on the premise that the student has had an introduction to spoken Chinese and that the course covers about two semesters depending on the number of contact hours.

NOTES

1. See Reform of the Chinese Written Langage, Foreign Languages Press, (Peking, 1958) p. 7. This booklet contains a collection of speeches and resolutions on the language reform movement.

2. See Appendix I and II for a chart of the Chinese Phonetic Alphabet and a table comparing the Chinese Phonetic Alphabet (New Latin) with the Wade-Giles and Yale Romanization.

3. "Report on the current tasks of reforming the written language and the draft scheme for a Chinese Phonetic Alphabet," delivered by Wu Yu-change at the fifth session of the First National People's Congress on February 3, 1958, reproduced in Reform of the Chinese Written Language, pp. 33-34.

4. See Appendix III

5. The figures given under Simplified Characters total 29 more than the 545 officially selected. The difference is accounted for by a few abbreviated characters standing for two or more characters.

6. Chinese Reading for Beginners (originally part of Series 111), Dept. of Oriental Studies, Yale University (New Haven, 1939). Simple Chinese Stories, Dept. of Oriental Studies, Yale University (New Haven, 1942). Stories from Ancient China, Institute of Far Eastern Languages, Yale University (New Haven, 1949). These three readers introduce the student to about 360 most commonly used characters.

7. George A. Kennedy, Ed., Sinological Seminar, Yale University, (New Haven, 1954). Another useful reference is Grace Wan and Tao-tai Hsia, Most Commonly Used Chinese Characters, Institute of Far Eastern Languages, Yale University, (New Haven, 1957).

8. The 1000 characters refer to those introduced in the Read Chinese series published by the Institute of Far Eastern Languages, Yale University.

9. Parts I and II of this text are available; Part III has not been completed.

10. See Appendix IV for sample lesson.

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Workpaper for MLA Chinese-Japanese Conference, February 26-27, 1960:

# A Survey of Japanese Language Programs in American Universities and in Certain Other Teaching Facilities

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I should like to begin this brief survey of Japanese language programs in America with a word of thanks to the many teachers who have responded to my two questionnaires on the subject. The first of the two questionnaires requested information in general on the Japanese language programs at their institutions; the second asked for specific information on the courses comprising these programs. Of the twenty-two institutions to which the questionnaires were sent on January 21, fifteen had replied by February 8.

Among the universities from which responses were received are a number of universities (the University of California at Los Angeles, Columbia, Harvard, Hawaii, Michigan, Oregon, Pennsylvania, Stanford, Yale, and the University of Southern California) at which students may receive three years or more of Japanese language instruction. Also included is one university (Syracuse) whose offerings in Japanese are confined to single courses given in connection with summer institutes on Asia. Also responding are two major facilities, not connected with any university, namely, the Foreign Service Institute and the Army Language School, and the Institute of Far Eastern Languages at Yale University, at which students, missionaries, commercial representatives, and government and military personnel may study the Japanese language. Finally, a response has been received from International Christian University in Japan, represented by Miss Fumiko Koide. Altogether these institutions represent, I believe, a good cross-section of universities and other facilities engaged in the teaching of the Japanese language to Americans.

Work in the Japanese language may be offered in a Department of Far Eastern, Asian, Oriental, Indic and Far Eastern, or Asian and Pacific Languages (and Literatures), in a Department of Oriental Studies, or in a Department of Chinese and Japanese. Sometimes it is offered in a general Department of Foreign Languages. The East Asian Institute at Columbia and the Center for Japanese Studies at Michigan are examples of highly formalized research and training organizations in which language and area departments are joined in a cooperative program, but almost every other university has some sort of interdepartmental and interdisciplinary effort joining the language and area arms of Japanese studies. The varieties of cooperation are very well illustrated at Harvard University where study of the Japanese language leads to the B.A., M.A., and Ph.D. degree in Far Eastern Languages, and is also an important part of the programs leading to the M.A. degree in Regional Studies (East Asia), the Ph.D. degree in History and Far Eastern Languages, and the Ph.D. degree in other programs given jointly by the Department of Far Eastern Languages and other departments.

The student clienteles of the Foreign Service Institute, the Army Language School, and the Institute of Far Eastern Languages differ from those of the universities, but within the universities too the differing textures of the student populations dictate the setting up of various locally justified programs.

Hawaii, with its many students of Japanese ancestry, reports a beginning course in conversational Japanese that has enrolled 244 students and a first year reading course with a total enrollment of 67. UCLA has 37 students, Stanford 31, Columbia 13 in General Studies and 6 in Columbia College, Michigan and Oregon 14 in their beginners' courses, and Harvard a total of 26 in its intensive first and second year courses. Characteristic of most programs is the severe attrition that sets in by the time the second year courses are reached. At most universities a 50% reduction seems normal. Thus advanced courses are sometimes listed but not taken. However, advanced work of considerable difficulty may be had at several of the universities. 5 students at UCLA are reading the biographies of a number of Buddhist monks and 2 are working with selections from Japanese Buddhism; 8 students at Columbia are reading in the field of classical Japanese literature, 5 are working specifically with dramatic texts, 3 with Meiji literature and drama, and 3 are engaged in a coverage of Japanese bibliography. 6 students at Harvard are working with pre-modern literary and historical texts. The *Hōjōki* is used in a course taken by 6 students at the University of Hawaii, where also 9 students are reading contemporary Japanese literature and 5 are working on Japanese folk literature as recorded in Kinoshita's *Nihon minwa-sen*. Michigan has 8 students in its Studies in the Japanese Language and 7 in its Structure of the Japanese Language; and the University of California at Berkeley and the University of Washington, two institutions from which data have not been received, are also known to be giving advanced work in the Japanese language. UCLA dares to use the term *kambun* in the title of a course. Extremely advanced work is thus available at an increasingly large number of institutions.

ICU reports a teacher training program enrolling 16 students in a course on the structure of the Japanese language, 7 in a course in teaching methods, and 6 in a course on practice teaching. These courses and the program in which they are given suggest the relative paucity of opportunities given to our graduate students in America to receive teacher training. Too often they take their first teaching positions with little more than the Japanese creases in their brains and the blessings of their instructors.

Trapped by the need to conform with the usual university teaching schedule, most of the courses meet only three or four hours a week. Despite the possibilities afforded by the provisions of the National Defense Education Act, intensive courses are usually given only in the summer and only at three or four universities. However, Columbia has a year-long beginners' course meeting 13 hours a week, Harvard has two year-long double courses, each meeting 8 hours a week, Yale a double course meeting 9 hours a week, and USC a course meeting 8 to 9 hours a week. But for truly intensive courses the universities must bow to the Army Language School, which offers a course running a total of 47 weeks, with the classes meeting 30 hours per week; to the Foreign Service Institute, which is able to offer courses running either six months or a year and meeting 26 to 30 periods a week, with the students given additional work with tape recordings; and to the Institute of Far Eastern Languages, at which the intensive beginners' course runs 12 months and involves

20-22 contact hours, plus 8-10 laboratory hours, each week. At the International Christian University the one-year intensive course meets a total of 22 hours a week, 12 in class and 10 in the laboratory, and the students also enjoy the special advantage of learning the Japanese language in its native environment.

Expansion in the Japanese language curriculum is anticipated at Stanford University, which is about to enlarge its graduate program, and at the University of Hawaii, where the first year's work is already split into a spoken and a written language course and the traditional second and third year courses are undergoing expansion into second and third year conversational and second and third year reading courses.

At a few of the universities, students enjoy the privilege of "majoring" or "concentrating" in the Japanese language on their way to the B.A. degree. At still fewer institutions they may earn the M.A. degree with the Japanese language as their major field of study, and at a very few they may write their Ph.D. dissertations in the field of Japanese language. Needless to say, most of the programs offered to students working on their M.A. and Ph.D. degrees in Japanese include a liberal dosage of work in literature and the social sciences. Some of the institutions prefer to give an M.A. in Far Eastern Area studies; at least one, however, eschews an areal association. At the Foreign Language Institute, the Army Language School, and largely in the Institute for Far Eastern Languages, no degrees are involved; the language, though studied intensively, is acquired for its use as a "tool."

The objectives of Japanese language teaching are in large measure practical. The students wish to become government personnel, lieutenants if not captains of industry, missionaries, teachers of Japanese in America or teachers of English in Japan. They wish to speak, understand, read, and write the Japanese language as a means of communication. Many of the institutions emphasize competence in reading; others look upon competence in the spoken language as something useful and valuable not only for itself but also as an approach to reading competence. In their intermediate and advanced work, most of the institutions stress the translation of Japanese materials, sometimes to the exclusion of speech. Although some of the beginning courses are conducted almost entirely in Japanese, only three or four courses in the entire spectrum of intermediate and advanced courses in the Japanese language are conducted entirely or mostly in Japanese.

To the question, who teaches the Japanese language, the answer may be stated as follows: language scholars per se, language scholars possessing equivalent or secondary competences in such fields as history, religion, and philosophy, specialists in linguistics, and students of Japanese literature, professors of history, religion, and philosophy, scholars in the field of comparative literature, and professors of education who are called upon to teach one or more courses in language. These teachers work either by themselves or in tandem with drillmasters and tutors who may or may not possess special disciplinary competences in such fields as fine arts, history, library science, economics, and linguistics, and possess or may not possess particular competences in such activities related to language teaching as the management of language laboratories, materials development, and the teaching of calligraphy. Even student counseling becomes a specialist's function at the Army Language

School. The professor of Japanese language working exclusively with his subject is virtually non-existent. At the very least he combines a course in literature with the language courses that he offers. The descriptive linguist able to teach the older written forms of the language as well as the modern spoken is a rare and valuable person. The language teacher who is a specialist in some other field may stress the use of materials in the field of his specialty. For the richest development of courses in the Japanese language, including courses in the Japanese dialects, it seems necessary to nurture specialists who will combine a knowledge of linguistics with that of the Japanese language.

The percentage of effort devoted to the development of oral-aural competence, to increased capacity in reading and translation, grammatical knowledge, and other language skills is usually correlated with the objectives of each course. Courses devoted to the development of speaking ability will use romanized texts whereas courses aimed at the development of competence in reading will use texts written in the characters.

Columbia calls for simplified materials for beginners, graded materials for its second year course, and spoken language materials at the advanced levels. The processing of audio materials is a major undertaking, as any teacher who has attempted it can testify. Tape recordings of a variety of conversations, supported by romanized texts, would fit into the spoken language programs of most of the institutions represented in the present survey. Columbia hopes to make more effective use of the materials on tape already in its possession, and other schools, Pennsylvania for one, would like to provide tapes of its lesson materials. Michigan's Language Laboratory has a system of dial selectors, managed as a dial telephone is managed. Using it, the students are able to dial whatever four-minute lesson they want. Movies illustrating the particular situations in which graded conversations can take place are dreamily desired by many a language teacher. Hawaii takes full advantage of the Japanese movies regularly shown in Honolulu. Probably unique among the visual aids used in America is the model Japanese city found at the Foreign Service Institute.

Michigan looks for romanized texts at secondary levels and Oregon for graded readers beyond the second-year level, especially in the documentary, classical, and epistolary styles, with all the accompanying materials (vocabularies, grammatical and structural materials, etc.). At every level above the elementary, Columbia and Michigan would like to develop graded texts in Japanese geography, history, anthropology, literature, fine arts, and every other discipline in which students are likely to concentrate.

Deeply concerned with the needs of its beginning students, Hawaii looks forward to the development of a large collection of elementary books, whereas Columbia hopes to enlarge its collection of legal and other documents for use in its course on Japanese bibliography. On the other hand, mimeographed materials in the humanities, social sciences, and natural sciences are reported at ICU, and similar materials developed for the most part during World War II remain to some extent exploited in the teaching program at Michigan.

The range of materials used in the schools contain suggestions for teachers who wish to experiment with various types of material.

The foregoing survey of Japanese language programs offered in eleven universities of the United States and at FSI, IFEL, ALS, and ICU point to a number of conclusions and suggestions:

1. Advanced competences and the Ph.D. degree are attainable only in a few institutions.

2. The problem of teacher training needs attention.

3. Language-area cooperation is a "must"; professional language personnel should be responsible for language teaching, and they should be encouraged to do the necessary research and teaching which will continually add to their total competences as scholars and teachers; the teachers in the social and natural sciences will help by insisting on the development of real language competence on the part of their students, by helping in the identification of important materials in their subject areas which can be graded according to linguistic difficulty, and by the assigning of papers to such of their students as possess even a modicum of competence in the Japanese language which will make use of this competence.

4. A program of materials development needs immediate attention: it should be aimed at enlarging the total capacity of our Japanese language programs to develop the linguistic competences not only of specialists in language and literature but in the social and technical sciences as well.

5. Research involving the linguistic analysis of the Japanese language in all its forms and through all its history needs continual support.

6. Cooperative patronage of summer sessions at which courses not usually given during the academic year might be contemplated.

7. A cooperative inter-university program might also be established which will permit a real sharpening of language competences in the country where Japanese is spoken, Japan.

| INSTITUTION | COURSE NUMBER | COURSE TITLE | CLASS HOURS PER WEEK |  |  | STUDENT ENROLLMENT |  |  | METHODOLOGY IN PERCENTAGES |  |  |  |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
|  |  |  | CLASS | LAB | OTHER | UNDERGR. | GR. | SPECIAL | ORAL AURAL | RDG TRANS | GRAMMAR | OTHER |
| UCLA | 9A, 9B | Elem.Mod.J. | 5 | 0 | 0 | 37 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 90 | 10 | 0 |
|  | 109A, 109B | Interm.Mod.J. | 3 | 0 | 0 | 16 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 90 | 10 | 0 |
|  | 119A, 119B | Adv.Mod.J. | 3 | 0 | 0 | 7 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 90 | 10 | 0 |
|  | 129A, 129B | Classical J and Kambun | 2 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 70 | 30 | 0 |
|  | 179A, 179B | Rdgs in J | 3 | 0 | 0 | 5 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 80 | 20 | 0 |
|  | 199 | Spec.Studies in Oriental Langs. | at discretion of instr. |  |  | 3 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 100 | 0 | 0 |
|  | 229A, 229B | J.Buddhist Texts | 3 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 2 | 0 | 0 | 100 | 0 | 0 |
| Columbia | 1-2 | Gen'l.Studies: Elem.J. | 5 | 1 | 0 | 2 | 3 | 8 | 50 | 25 | 25 | 0 |
|  | 1-2 | Columbia College Elem.J. | 5 | 1 | 0 | 3 | 3 | 0 | 50 | 25 | 25 | 0 |
|  | 3-4 | Second Yr.J. | 5 | 1 | 0 | 5 | 3 | 0 | 50 | 25 | 25 | 0 |
|  | 11-12 | Intensive J. | 10 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 5 | 0 | 40 | 40 | 20 | 0 |
|  | 105-106 | Adv.Contemp.J. | 3 | 1 opt. | 1-2 confs. wkly.per student | 2 | 5 | 0 | 30 | 35 | 30 | 0 |
|  | 107-108 | Rdgs in Classical J. | 3 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 7 | 0 | 0 | 90 | 10 | 0 |
|  | 205-206 | The J.Theatre | 2-3 | occas. | 1 transl. | 0 | 4 | 1 | very little | most | occas. | reading and correction of translations for style and accuracy |
|  | 207-208 |  |  | 0 | 1 prep.of an artistic trans. | 0 | 3 | 0 | 0 | rapid rdg. only |  | careful word-for-word analyses, for accuracy and for Engl.style |
|  | 307 | J.Bibliography | 2 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 3 | 0 |  |  |  |  |
| Harvard | Aab and 102ab | Intens.Elem.J.<br>Intens.Interm.J. | 8 | 0 | 0 | 10 | 14 | 2 | 40 | 40 | 10 | 10 |
|  | 103a;104b | Adv.J. | 3 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 10 | 0 | 0 | 80 | 20 | 0 |

| INSTITUTION | COURSE NUMBER | COURSE TITLE | CLASS HOURS PER WEEK CLASS | LAB | OTHER | STUDENT ENROLLMENT UNDERGR. | GR. | SPECIAL | METHODOLOGY IN PERCENTAGES ORAL AURAL | RDG TRANS | GRAMMAR | OTHER |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Stanford | J.1,2,3 | Elem.Mn.J. | 5 | 2 | voluntary | 22 | 6 | 3 | 25 | 50 | 25 | 0 |
| | J.5 | Intens.Elem. Mn.J. | 19 | volunt. | " | 0 | 0 | 7 | 25 | 50 | 25 | 0 |
| | J.21,22,23 | Intermed. Mn.J. | 5 | 0 | voluntary | 12 | 0 | 0 | 10 | 60 | 30 | 0 |
| | J.25 | Intens. Intermed. Mn.J. | 19 | volunt. | volunt. | | | | | | | |
| | J.101,102, 103 | (J.101:3rd.yr.J. J.102-103:Intr. to ClassicalJ.) | 5 | 0 | 1 | 3 | 6 | 0 | 0 | 80 | 20 | 0 |
| | J.31,32,33 | Elem.Conv.J. | 2 | 2 | 0 | | | | 80 | 20 | | |
| | J.121,122, 123 | Adv.Conv.J. | 2 | 1 | 1 coffee hour | | | | 80 | 10 | 10 | 0 |
| | J.191 | Senior Seminar | 2 | | informal consultation | | | | 0 | 40 | 25 | 35 |
| | J.221 | Proseminar in Research Tools and Methods | 2 | informal | | | | | 10 | 20 | 10 | 60 |
| | J.222 | Study of Models of Monographic Writing | 2 | | | | | | 5 | 30 | 5 | 60 |
| | J.251 | Adv.Class.J. Hist.& Formal Styles | 4 | | | | | | 5 | 50 | 25 | 20 |
| | J.252 | Adv.Class.J. Poetry & Prose | 4 | | | | | | 5 | 50 | 25 | 20 |
| | J.261 | Adv.Rdgs.in Mn. J.Lit.Styles | 4 | | | | | | 5 | 50 | 0 | 45 |
| | J.262 | Adv.Rdgs.in Mn. J.Contemp.Ideological and Documentary Styles | 4 | | | | | | 5 | 50 | 0 | 45 indiv. research |
| Yale | J.25 | Elementary J. | 9 | 0 | 0 | 5 | 1 | 0 | 70 | 15 | 15 | 0 |
| | J.40 | Interm.J. | 5 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 20 | 70 | 10 | 10 |
| | J.50 | Advanced J. | 5 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 2 | 0 | 10 | 80 | 10 | 0 |
| Syracuse | J.1 | Introductory J. | 3 | and private drills | | 1-10/during summers 1954,1955,1956,1958 | | | | | | |
| Univ. of So.Calif. | J.110a,110b | Elementary J. | 5 | 2-3 | 1 | 10 | 0 | 2 | 20 | 50 | 30 | 0 |

| INSTITUTION | COURSE NUMBER | COURSE TITLE | CLASS HOURS PER WEEK |  |  | STUDENT ENROLLMENT |  |  | METHODOLOGY IN PERCENTAGES |  |  |  |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
|  |  |  | CLASS | LAB | OTHER | UNDERGR. | GR. | SPECIAL | ORAL AURAL | RDG TRANS | GRAMMAR | OTHER |
| Harvard (contd.) | 104a, 104b | Adv.Spkg. and Rdg. | 3 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | Oral-aural-rdg.90 transl.10 |  |  |  |
|  | 251a, 251b | J.Hist.and Lit.Texts | 2 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 6 | 0 | Rdg-Trans-Grammar 50; prep.of research paper 50 |  |  |  |
| Hawaii | J 101,102 | First year Convers.J. | 3 | 2 | 0 | 218 | 22 | 4 | 80 | 0 | 20 | 0 |
|  | J 103,104 | First year J.Reading | 3 | 0 | 0 | 61 | 6 | 0 | 0 | 75 | 25 | 0 |
|  | J 151,152 | Interm.J. | 3 | 0 | 0 | 77 | 3 | 0 | 30 | 50 | 20 | 0 |
|  | J 411,412 | Third-year J. | 3 | 0 | indiv.help as needed | 18 | 2 | 2 | 90 | 5 | 5 | 0 |
|  | J 413,414 | Literary J. | 3 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 5 | 0 | 0 | 40 | 60 | 0 |
|  | J 511 | Contemp.J.Lit. in J. | 2 | 0 | irregular "coffee hours" | 3 | 6 | 0 | 100 lectures and discussions in Japanese | 0 | 0 | 0 |
|  | J 415 | J.Folk Lit. | 3 | 0 | 0 | 5 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 70 | 0 | 30 discussion of cultural background |
| Indiana | 474 | Elem.J. | 5 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 60 | 30 | 10 | 0 |
|  | 476 | 2nd-yr J. | 3 | 0 | 0 | 3 | 1 | 0 | 30 | 50 | 20 | 0 |
| Michigan | 1-2 | Elem.J.Lang. | 4 | 2 | 1 coffee hour | 8 | 4 | 2 | 80 | 0 | 20 | 0 |
|  | 31-32 | 2nd-yr.J. | 4 | 0 | 1 coffee hour | 2 | 9 | 0 | 70 | 0 | 15 | 15 written exercises to check on gr.; short compositions |
|  | 71-72 | Intro.to Written J. | 4 | 0 | occas.coffee hours | 4 | 7 | 0 | 15 | 75 | 10 | some home-work consisting of exercises in gr., short composition |
|  | 91-92 | Honors Course in J. | 3 | 0 | 0 | 2 | 0 | 0 |  |  |  | mostly indiv. work under direction leading to writing of a paper |

| INSTITUTION | COURSE NUMBER | COURSE TITLE | CLASS HOURS PER WEEK |  |  | STUDENT ENROLLMENT |  |  | METHODOLOGY IN PERCENTAGES |  |  |  |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
|  |  |  | CLASS | LAB | OTHER | UNDERGR. | GR. | SPECIAL | ORAL AURAL | RDG TRANS | GRAMMAR | OTHER |
| Michigan (contd.) | 131 sect.1 | Rdg.Course in J. | 3 | 0 | occas. coffee hrs. | 2 | 6 | 0 | 10 | 70 | 20 | 0 |
|  | 131 sect.2 | Rdg.Course in J. | 3 | 0 | occas. coffee hrs. | 1 | 6 | 1 | 10 | 70 | 20 | spot checks on recognition of kanji |
|  | 131 sect.3 | Rdg.Course in J. | 3 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 3 | 0 | 0 | 70 | 20 | 10 assistance in compiling bibliographies for students particular studies |
|  | 135 | Structure of the J.Lang. | 2 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 13 | C | 0 | 10 | 50 | 40 lectures & discussions |
|  | 201,202 | Studies in the J. Lang. | 2 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 8 | 0 | 0 | 0 | some | discussion of moot problems in the structure and hist. of the J. lang. |
| Oregon | O.L.60, 61,62 | 1st.year J. | 4 | 0 | 0 | 14 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 45 | 35 | 20 writing drills, dictation, etc. |
|  | O.L.80,81, 82 | 2d.year J. | 4 | 0 | 0 | 3 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 60 | 40 | writing drills |
|  | O.L.405 | Rdgs.in 3rd.yr.J. | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 0 | 10 | 45 | 35 | 0 |
| Pennsylvania | O.S.596 | Beginning J. | 3 | 1 convers. | 0 | 4 | 1 | 2 | 33 | 67 reading, transl., grammar | 0 | 0 |
|  | O.S.597 | Intermed.J. | 3 | 1 convers. | 0 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 10 | 80 reading, transl., grammar |  | 10 writing |
|  | O.S.598 | Advanced J. | 2 | 0 | 0 | 2 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 100 reading, transl., grammar |  | 0 |

| INSTITUTION | COURSE NUMBER | COURSE TITLE | CLASS HOURS PER WEEK | | | STUDENT ENROLLMENT | | | METHODOLOGY IN PERCENTAGES | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | CLASS | LAB | OTHER | UNDERGR. | GR. | SPECIAL | ORAL AURAL | RDG TRANS | GRAMMAR | OTHER |
| Univ.of So.Calif. | J.214a,214b | Spoken J. | 3 | 3 | 0 | 12 | 2 | 0 | 70 | 10 | 20 | 0 |
| | J.210a,210b | Intermed.J. | 3 | 2-3 | 0 | 6 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 60 | 40 | 0 |
| | J.410a,410b | Advanced J. | 3 | 2-3 | 0 | 4 | 3 | 0 | 0 | 70 | 30 | 0 |
| | J.414a,414b | Rdgs. in J. | 3 | 0 | 0 | | | | 0 | 90 | 10 | 0 |
| Army Lang. School | 30-OE-20 | J.Language (47 weeks) | 25-27 | 3-5 | 3 study per day | various | | | 65 | 20 | 5 | 10 writing |
| | 30-OC-80 | J.Language (75 weeks) | | | | | | | | | | |
| Foreign Service Institute | | Intensive Course | 26-30 | work with taped recordings | | various | | | 90 until 4th mo., then 75% | 15 after 1st 3 mos. | 10 | 0 |
| | | Advanced J. | 2 | 0 | 0 | various | | | 90 | 10 | 0 | 0 |
| Institute of Far Eastern Languages, Yale | J.301 | Elem.Spoken J. (12 months) | 20-22 | 8-10 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 40 | 50-60 | 25-30 | 10-15 | 15-20 sound laboratory |
| Internat'l. Christian University | 111,12,13 | Intensive J. (one year, three terms) | 12 | 10 | 0 | 13 | 5 | 0 | 45 | 30 | 25 | 0 during Term 1 |
| | | | | | | | | | 30 | 55 | 15 | 0 during Terms 2,3 |
| | 114,115 | Intensive J. (advanced) (two terms) | 6 | 4 | 0 | 12 | 3 | 0 | 20 | 45 | 15 | 20 |
| | 101,102,103 | Elem.J. (three terms) | 2 | 2 | 0 | about 30 | 0 | 4-5 | 60 | 15 | 25 | 0 |
| | 201 | J.Structure | 3 | 0 | 0 | 14 | 2 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 100 lectures and discussion |
| | 202,203 | Teaching Methods in J. | 1 | 1 | 0 | 6 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 25 | 25 discussion of teaching methods<br>25 observation of classes<br>25 discussion of observation |

| INSTITUTION | COURSE NUMBER | COURSE TITLE | CLASS HOURS PER WEEK |  |  | STUDENT ENROLLMENT |  |  | METHODOLOGY IN PERCENTAGES |  |  |  |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
|  |  |  | CLASS | LAB | OTHER | UNDERGR. | GR. | SPECIAL | ORAL AURAL | RDG TRANS | GRAMMAR | OTHER |
| Internat'l. Christian University (contd.) | 204,205 | Practice Teaching in J. | 1 | 2 practice teaching | 0 | 6 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 60 practice teaching<br>40 discussion of practice teaching |
|  | 221,222 | J.Language | 2 | 1 | 0 | about 10 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 40 lecture<br>30 practice (writing, recording)<br>30 discussion |

# THE MODERN LANGUAGE ASSOCIATION OF AMERICA

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CONFERENCE ON MATERIALS FOR TEACHING CHINESE AND JAPANESE

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## WRITTEN MATERIALS: EVALUATION OF EXISTING TEXTS, INCLUDING DICTIONARIES; PRESENT AND FUTURE NEEDS (JAPANESE)

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The term "written materials" will be defined in this paper as works either compiled or specially written for students who learn Japanese as a foreign language and who wish to read texts written in Japanese orthography. Materials, therefore, which are entirely in Roman letters have not been included for comment. Although much of what will be said in this paper is already well-known to those now engaged in teaching Japanese in the United States, it is hoped that the information will serve as a useful summary and that it will also act as an introduction to those unfamiliar with the present conditions and problems of teaching the Japanese language.

### Bibliographies of Existing Materials and Dictionaries

An excellent guide to written materials and dictionaries published before 1953 will be found, with annotation, in the chapter on language in A Selected List of Books and Articles on Japan in English, French, and German, compiled by Hugh Borton, et al. (Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1954).* As the title of this work indicates, however, only texts which have notes and/or a glossary in one of these three languages are listed. An example of an important book not cited, although its title is in English, is: Selected Japanese Texts, Vols. I-III, compiled by Serge Elisseeff and Edwin O. Reischauer (Harvard University Press, 1947).

*See Chapter XII, subsection C, grammar and Textbooks; subsection E, dictionaries.

Written materials which contain notes and a glossary in a Western language and which were published from 1953 to 1956 are listed, without annotation, in: Far Eastern Bibliography, an annual issue of the Far Eastern Quarterly. From 1956 to the present, such works are mentioned in: Bibliography of Asian Studies, an annual publication as a fifth number of the Journal of Asian Studies.

## Reference Grammars

The bibliographies cited yield the information that fourteen reference grammars were published during the period from 1908 to the present. Ten of these appeared before 1940 and four during the 1940's. Nothing new seems to have been written since 1950, intended solely as a reference grammar. Since 1940, there have been a number of outstanding contributions to the study of the Japanese language based on descriptive linguistics. These have been published as monographs and articles in linguistic journals.*

Although these are important works, they are highly technical in nature, and they are extremely difficult to use for the average student of Japanese, who has no training in linguistics. A reference grammar based on these studies and re-written for non-linguistic students would be highly valuable. A good example of such reference grammar is Yamagiwa's The Modern Japanese Written Language, (Ann Arbor: 1945), a digest of his doctoral dissertation and prepared with the needs of the average student in mind.

Sansom's An Historical Grammar of Japanese (Oxford: Clarendon Press,

* Examples are items 1216, 1221, and 1241 in the Borton Bibliography mentioned above. There are also E. H. Jordan's "The Syntax of Modern Colloquial Japanese" published as language dissertation No. 52, Language, (Journal of the Linguistic Society of America) Supplement to Vol. 31, No. 1 (Part 3), Jan-March 1955, and Samuel E. Martin's "Morphophonemics of Standard Colloquial Japanese," published also as a language dissertation (No. 47) in the same Journal, 1952.

1928), is an excellent grammar of classical Japanese. Yet there is considerable variation in the terminology employed in this book and that found in the texts and grammars ordinarily used by American students at the elementary and intermediate stages of their study of Japanese. The benefits of the grammar are limited to the highly gifted or the highly advanced students. Another reason for writing another reference grammar on classical Japanese as comprehensive as this one is to give more attention to historical variations in morphological and syntactical usages. The presence of characters in grammatical explanations and examples might also be of great help in assisting the student to master the essentials of classical style.

Although Sansom has comprehensively dealt with classical grammar, he has little to say about the special problems of sōrōbun and Kanbun. As knowledge of these styles is essential for research, and easily available existing grammars contain little information, new grammars will be needed for this purpose alone.

Textbooks

The Bibliographies list only nine textbooks designed to teach systematically the reading of materials in Japanese orthography. Of these, the two most widely used and incidentally the two with the most sizeable notes and glossary in English are:

Elementary Japanese for College Students,
Parts 1-3, compiled by Serge Elisséeff,
Edwin O. Reischauer and Takehiko Yoshihashi.
(Cambridge: Harvard University, 1945),
and
The Standard Japanese Readers, Books I-VIII,
compiled by Naoe Naganuma, (Tokyo: 1948).

The first textbook consists of three parts: Japanese texts, notes and vocabulary, romanized texts. It covers about 775 characters and both types of phonetic syllabaries, hiragana and katakana. The text is carefully graded with seventy-five lessons in all. The first twenty-six lessons are devoted to the presentation of the morphology and syntax of modern Japanese, and lessons 61-65 & 73-74 introduce classical Japanese grammar, emphasizing classical elements which sometimes appear in modern Japanese texts. These first twenty-six lessons and another ten scattered among lessons 26-75 are made up of isolated sentences, a technique devised for drilling the student. The vocabulary and characters included in this text have been carefully chosen for their high frequency. These selections are essentially still valid, although there are some vocabulary items pertaining to military matters which could now be omitted. It should also be pointed out that this textbook was published before the language reforms of 1946, with the result that its Japanese texts are written in accordance with old forms of characters and orthographical rules. Since a majority of students of the Japanese language must learn to handle Japanese texts written before the language reform as well as to read contemporary writings, this textbook is still extremely useful.

This Reischauer-Elisseeff series has proved to be very good for use in colleges and universities where students are strongly motivated, mature, and highly selected. The high degree of basic grammar covered in a short span and the systematic and rapid presentation of new characters and words give more than adequate challenge to superior graduate students.

However, the new trend, at least at Columbia, is toward increasingly larger numbers of undergraduate students and also students in night classes who wish to study Japanese. They usually have less time to devote to study outside the classroom and have to be motivated and encouraged more than the graduate students. In general, they seem to have less ability to read with understanding grammatical explanations of the type employed in this textbook. It is apparent that another series should be designed for such students.

Among these students who begin their Japanese language studies while still undergraduates are those who will eventually major in Japanese or East Asian studies on the graduate level. If this trend continues, the degree of proficiency in the Japanese language of graduate students would in turn be improved. There is every reason, then, to encourage these undergraduates and to make their study of Japanese as efficient and profitable as possible by providing them with suitable beginners' texts.

The second series, often referred to as the Naganuma readers, is perhaps the most famous and most comprehensive of all the texts. It is designed to take students from the elementary to the advanced levels, as these levels are defined by the compiler. Its older edition was the most widely used textbook in this country during the war years. Since the revised edition has only recently been made available to students in the United States, as yet there is no adequate classroom experience by which to judge its value.

The basic principles adopted in the compilation of the older edition are sound and well applied. The reading materials are carefully graded, with each new grammatical feature usually repeated in the lessons immediately subsequent to its introduction. There are, however, several weak points.

1. The topics of the stories, especially in the early lessons are too "unsophisticated," particularly annnoying to superior students. Apparently there is the assumption that to learn elementary Japanese one has to be limited to childish thoughts or phrases and to words pertaining only to the simplest objects of daily life.

2. The amount of new grammatical points and the number of new charac-

ters introduced in each lesson is too small for college and university students. And, paradoxically, because of the large number of new words, as distinct from characters, in each lesson, students cannot cover more material for each classroom meeting.

3. The grammatical notes and definitions of words in English are frequently wrong or misleading.

4. Although the first two books in this series have been rewritten to incorporate the measures adopted in the 1946 language reform, the style of the text is still quite close to the earlier edition, which is dated by about thirty years and quite unrepresentative of today's language.

5. With the exception of Book I, Part I, there are no exercises to accompany the reading lessons. Grammar notes are scattered throughout the glossary in subsequent parts but they do not emphasize adequately a structural understanding of the language.

For students who have completed either Elementary Japanese or the first four books in the Naganuma series, there are no annotated texts, except the last four books of this same Naganuma series. These have not been used at Columbia. Hence their value to the student has not been determined. Instead, Selected Japanese Texts for University Students, Vol. I, with our own somewhat hastily prepared vocabulary sheets have been used. We have also resorted to such novels as Yukiguni and Shayo with some vocabulary sheets, but the choice was made primarily because excellent model translations were also available.

Other reading materials for more advanced courses have been taken from contemporary journals, newspapers, and reference works but usually without extensive vocabulary lists to assist the student. The amount that we have been able to cover in the classroom has thus been sadly small. (The advanced student has been greatly handicapped without inexpensive, student editions of plays, poems, short stories, novels, and historical or philosophical essays with vocabulary lists and explanations of difficult points of grammar, such as his fellow students in French and German and other Western languages enjoy.)

Dictionaries

The Japanese-English dictionaries currently available were originally prepared by Japanese for other Japanese who wished to learn English. However, most of these dictionaries are still of value to American students of Japanese.

The most popularly used in the United States today is: Kenkyusha's New Japanese-English Dictionary, edited by Senkichiro Katsumata (Tokyo: Kenkyusha, 1954), 2136 pages. As the number of pages shows, this is at least in size comparable in its coverage to Webster's Collegiate Dictionary. American students frequently complain that the phrases and clauses quoted in this dictionary to illustrate various uses of a word are not romanized, making it difficult for them to pronounce the phrases. This objection, of course, will be heard less often as the standard of instruction in Japanese is raised and students attain a higher degree of competence. But certainly for the beginning student, this need is great.

A strong point of this dictionary is the following useful supplements:

1. Official English translations of names of government offices.
2. Important proper names in East Asian history.
3. Conversion tables for Japanese and Chinese readings of the same character.

4. A comparative table for old and new forms of characters (740) of the 1850 Tōyō Kanji list.

Several English-Japanese dictionaries of comparable comprehensiveness also exist, but they are lacking in romanized examples and not often used by students. An example of a dictionary in this category is: Kenkyūsha's New English-Japanese Dictionary, edited by Tamihei Iwasaki, et al. (Tokyo: Kenkyūsha, 1953), 2123 pages.

Beginners' Dictionary of Chinese-Japanese Characters, with common abbreviations, variants and numerous compounds, compiled by Arthur Rose-Inness (Tokyo: Maiseisha, 1959), 523 pages, is a standard bilingual character dictionary. The content of the latest edition is apparently the same as the second enlarged edition of 1932. The forms of the characters predate the language reform, and the readings of the characters also reflect older orthographic rules, causing a minor degree of inconvenience and annoyance to users. This problem can be solved quite easily by having a character dictionary such as: Tōyō Kanji Jiten (no English used), compiled by Tamizō Toyama, et al. (Tokyo: Chūō Shuppan), only about $1.00. A more expensive bilingual dictionary is: A Guide to Reading and Writing Japanese, edited by Florence Sakade (Tokyo: Charles E. Tuttle Co., 1959), 287 pages.

There does exist a more comprehensive bilingual character dictionary containing up to 12,000 characters with over 80,000 compounds. This is the A. B. C. Japanese-English Dictionary, Oreste and Elisa Vaccari (Tokyo: The Authors, Part I, 1949; Part II, 1959 (?), 1949). Part I covers 6,450 characters and their compounds, and it emphasizes usages in modern Japanese. Part II covers additional 5,550 characters and their compounds which are of more importance in reading classical documents.

Due to a radical departure from the traditional system of classifying characters, students have been reluctant to use this dictionary. However, it does have several indexes to characters, including those by the traditional radicals, stroke-numbers, and on and kun readings, and the student should be encouraged to use this dictionary.

## Present and Future Needs

Experience in the classroom indicates that the most important written materials now required are:

1. Annotated reading materials for intermediate and advanced levels for rapid reading and for efficient home study. Selected readings without vocabularies or grammatical explanations only consume the student's time in needless dictionary work when he might instead directly apply himself to the act of learning. These are most urgently needed unless teaching hours can be increased significantly.

2. Annotated workbooks which give training in the use of standard reference works in the social sciences and humanities.

3. An elementary textbook suitable for undergraduate students and business people, together with a good teacher's manual. To be specific, the features that would be desirable in a textbook for this group of students are first, presentation at the early stages of basic grammar and vocabulary through a phonemic script and not through the native orthography. The use of the existing romanization system, either the national or modified Hepburn, will meet this requirement quite satisfactorily. The use of the national system seems to make the transition from the phonemic script to the native orthography definitely easier. On the

other hand, there are the occasional students who have some difficulty in becoming accustomed to the Hepburn system; but since it is almost universally used in Western literature, it is necessary to master it.

Secondly, grammatical rules should, in general, be presented inductively and illustrated with numerous examples which have been written with a controlled vocabulary. And last, each lesson should be centered around certain grammatical categories and presented preferably in a running text. The topics of the text should be, whenever possible, a mixture of common everyday affairs and current and historical events. Also good are views expressed by Japanese. The criterion is that they be informative and intellectually and emotionally challenging. A textbook written in this manner cannot always keep the progression of vocabulary in close conformity with the results of the word frequency count, but this problem is not really too important as long as all of the high frequency words are introduced somewhere within the basic course.

4. Revision of the existing textbooks to incorporate changes made by the language reform of 1946.

5. A more comprehensive bilingual Japanese-English dictionary on the order of Mathews' Chinese-English Dictionary and compiled in accordance with historical principles. If this cannot be done soon, then it would be advisable to reprint Brinkley's An Abridged Japanese-English Dictionary, fifth edition (Tokyo: Sanseido, 1899), 1687 pages.

6. A handbook of classical grammar thoroughly covering each linguistically distinctive historical period.

7. A comprehensive grammar for sōrō-bun and another for kañbun, more advanced in their offerings than existing works, which are little more than introductions.

Future needs are two-fold: first, in anticipation that the Japanese language may be added to the curriculum of some secondary schools, some thought should be given to appropriate textbooks, drill books; reading materials, and teachers' manuals. Secondly, there should be a professional journal for teachers of the Japanese language or an added section in an existing journal for teachers of foreign languages to keep them aware of important studies or research applicable to Japanese language teaching.

| INSTITUTION | COURSE NUMBER | TEXTS |
|---|---|---|
| UCLA | 9A, 9B | Naganuma I, with Kanji bk. I, Vocab. bk. I; also, Naganuma gr. (recommended) |
| | 109A, 109B | Naganuma II-IV (all) |
| | | Newspaper selections |
| | 119A, 119B | Elisséeff and Reischauer, Selected J. Texts, I: 1/3 to 1/2 |
| | 129A, 129B | Elisséeff and Reischauer, Selected J. Texts, I (classical and Chinese styles) |
| | 179A, 179B | Biographies of famous Buddhist monks |
| | 199 | Texts in accordance with students' interests |
| | 229A, 229B | Selections from J. Buddhism |
| Columbia | 1-2 (General Studies: Elem. J.) | |
| | | Bloch and Jorden, Spoken Japanese, bk. I (all) |
| | | Naganuma I, word bk., kanji bk., glossary (all) |
| | | Rose-Innes: explanation of use, with exercises |
| | | Voice of America programs, excerpts from plays in lab. hours with prep. in class |
| | | Aural exercises in lab. |
| | 1-2 (Columbia College: Elem. J.) | |
| | | as above |
| | 3-4 | Naganuma II (all), with word bk., kanji bk. |
| | | Rose-Innes |
| | | Henderson, Handbk. of J. Gr., for reference |
| | | Exercises in literary language |
| | | Tōyō kanji dictionary |
| | | Voice of America programs, excerpts from plays, as above |
| | | Aural exercises in lab. |
| | 11-12 | Bloch and Jorden, Spoken Japanese, I |
| | | Naganuma I, II (all) |
| | | Excerpts from contemp. magazines, newspapers |
| | | Kenkyūsha |
| | | Rose-Innes |
| | | Lab. tapes |
| | 105-106 | Elisséeff and Reischauer, Selected J. Texts, bk. I (about 1/3) |
| | | Dazai, Shayō: 70 pp. in Shinchō bunko ed. |
| | | Sekai: one issue, with materials read both intensively and extensively |
| | | Asahi: several issues |
| | | Naganuma V, VI: excerpts |
| | | Excerpts from dictionaries, yearbooks, encyclopedias, other ref. works |
| | | Tape recordings of Elisséeff and Reischauer, Selected J. Texts, Shayō, radio broadcasts, plays, lectures, round table discussions |
| | | Kenkyūsha, J-E and E-J dictionaries |
| | | Rose-Innes |
| | | Shimmura, Kōjien |
| | | Ueda, Daijiten |

| INSTITUTION | COURSE NUMBER | TEXTS |
|---|---|---|
| Columbia | 105-106 (cont'd) | Yamagiwa, Mod. Conv. J., Mod. J. Written Lang. |
| | | Gardner, Inflections of Mod. Lit. J. |
| | 107-108 | Hōjōki yōkai (Hagihara): all |
| | | Heike monogatari (Inamura): about 1/3 |
| | | Kambun-sen (Ono): about 15 pages |
| | | Yōkyoku taikan (Sanari): two plays |
| | | Tsurezuregusa no goshaku to bumpō (Tachibana): about 1/4 |
| | | Meikai Sarashina nikki (Yamagishi): about 1/4 |
| | | Henderson, Handbk. of J. gr. |
| | | Chamberlain, Gr. of Written J. |
| | | Standard J-E dictionaries |
| | | Ueda |
| | | Heibonsha, Daijiten |
| | | Tsuchihashi, J. chronol. tables |
| | 205-206 | Sanari, Yōkyoku senshaku: usually 7 plays |
| | | Kurohane, Chikamatsu meisakushū: usually 2 plays |
| | | Slides of nō and jōruri performances |
| | | Records of nō plays |
| | 207-208 | Tsugita, Hyōshaku Ichiyō meisakushū: Takekurabe, Jūsanya |
| | | Mori Ōgai, Maihime (all) |
| | | Takano, Jōruri, kabuki: excerpts of Mokuami plays |
| | | A collection of Meiji poetry |
| | | Kōda Rohan-shū: two stories |
| | 307 | No formal textbook for the course; lectures on reference works, weekly problems reported on orally or in written form |
| Harvard | Aab and 102ab | Elisséeff and Reischauer, Elem. J. for College Students |
| | | Elisséeff and Reischauer, Selected J. Texts |
| | | Recordings of above |
| | | Usual dictionaries |
| | 103a, 104b | Eliséeff and Reischauer, Selected J. Texts, I |
| | | Usual dictionaries |
| | | Mimeog. texts |
| | 104a, 104b | Misc. novels, articles, etc. |
| | | Usual dictionaries |
| | 251a, 251b | Advanced materials, some from Eliséeff and Reischauer, Selected J. Texts, III, to cultivate ability to read pre-modern literary and historical texts |
| | | All sorts of reference texts |
| Hawaii | J101, 102 | Fujioka and Uyehara, Intr. to J., pt. 1 |
| | | Kenkyūsha, New J-E dict. |
| | J103, 104 | Elisséeff and Reischauer, Elem. J. for College Students, I, II |
| | | Rose-Innes |

| INSTITUTION | COURSE NUMBER | TEXTS |
|---|---|---|
| Hawaii | J151, 152 | Naganuma I, pt. 2<br>Mimeographed reading materials<br>Rose-Innes<br>Ueda |
| | J411, 412 | Naganuma II, III, IV, with word books<br>Rose-Innes<br>Mimeographed pamphlet on kanagukai, kanji, notes on radicals, etc.<br>Films on J. culture |
| | J413, 414 | Hōjōki<br>Notes on bungo grammar, with emphasis on inflected forms and particles<br>Ueda |
| | J511 | Several works in the original<br>Fuzambō<br>Kenkyūsha<br>A variety of reference works |
| | J415 | Kinoshita, Nihon minwa-sen<br>Kenkyūsha |
| Indiana | 474 | Bloch and Jorden, Spoken Japanese, I, II<br>Naganuma I<br>Rose-Innes<br>Iwasaki, Little J. Dictionary |
| | 476 | Continuation of above |
| Michigan | 1-2 | Shohara and Yamagiwa, Introd. to Sp. J.<br>Conversations in J.: selected conversations<br>Mimeog. exercises for homework |
| | 31-32 | Conversations in J. (all)<br>Informal Conversations in J. (selections) |
| | 71-72 | Elisséeff and Reischauer, Elem. J. for College Students: all<br>Yamagiwa, Introd. to J. Writing<br>Rose-Innes<br>Kenkyūsha, New J-E Dict. |
| | 91-92 | Preparation of a paper involving J. language, literature, and thought |
| | 131 (sec.1) | Jinjō shōgaku chirisho: 27 pp.<br>Jinjō shōgaku kokushi: 27 pp.<br>Yamagiwa, Mod. J. Wr. Lang.<br>Newspaper articles |
| | 131 (sec.2) | Elisséeff and Reischauer, Selected J. Texts for U. Students (1949)<br>Newspapers and magazines (Asahi, Chūō kōron, Bungei shinjū)<br>Selections from kambun<br>Ueda, Kōjien, other dictionaries, encyclopedias |

| INSTITUTION | COURSE NUMBER | TEXTS |
|---|---|---|
| Michigan | 131 (sec.3) | Each student reads his own research materials, some of which he must acquire from Japan |
| | 135 | A 17-minute conversation: recording on tape, transcription, word-by-word gloss<br>Bloch, Studies in Japanese, espec. the Syntax and Phonemics papers<br>Martin, Morphophonemics of Standard Colloquial Japanese |
| | 201, 202 | (1) First semester:<br>Discussion of the several chapters of a J. lang. bibliography, followed by the writing of papers<br>(2) Second semester:<br>Discussion of the papers written during the first semester, followed by the writing of a second paper |
| Oregon | O.L.50, 61, 62 | Martin, Essential Japanese<br>Elisséeff and Reischauer, Elem. J. for College Students: 26 lessons |
| | O.L.80, 81, 82<br>O.L.405 | Elisséeff and Reischauer, Elem. J. for College Students: total<br>Doi, Kōtō Gakkō Shin-kokugo: selections<br>Rose-Innes<br>Specified J-E and E-J dictionaries |
| Pennsylvania | O.S.596 | Elisséeff and Reischauer, Elem. J. for College Students, first 27 lessons<br>Rose-Innes |
| | O.S.597 | Elisséeff and Reischauer, Elem. J. for College Students, lessons 28-75<br>Rose-Innes<br>Ueda |
| | O.S.598 | Elisséeff and Reischauer, Selected J. Texts, I and II: selections<br>Hōjōki<br>Rose-Innes<br>Hyakka daijiten<br>Dai-Nihon jimmei jiten<br>Bukkyō daijiten<br>Dai-genkai, Kokusho kaidai, Bungaku daijiten<br>Ueda |
| Stanford | J1,2,3 | Martin, Essential Japanese: lessons 1-2<br>Naganuma I, with Kanji bk. and Word bk.: all<br>Suppl. materials: pronunciation exercises, translation exercises, grammar, kanji, J. songs<br>Listening assignments<br>Lab. work: taping of pronunciation, 2-3 times per quarter<br>Slides and pictures of Japan: 1-2 times per quarter, for convers. |
| | J5 | As above |
| | J21,22,23 | Naganuma II, with Word book<br>Martin, Essential Japanese<br>Rose-Innes<br>Naka Kansuke, Gin no saji |
| | J25 | As above for J21, 22, 23 |

| INSTITUTION | COURSE NUMBER | TEXTS |
|---|---|---|
| Stanford (contd.) | J101,102,103 | J.101: Naganuma, II: 15 lessons out of 30<br>Ueda<br>Keene, Aoi me no Tarōkaja: one article<br>Asahi editorial<br>Mori Ōgai, Takasebune: complete<br>J.102,103: Naganuma, III: 23 lessons out of 24<br>Naganuma, IV: several lessons omitted<br>Ueda<br>Henderson<br>Sansom, Historical grammar of Japan<br>Short texts in bungo from different sources |
|  | J31,32,33 | Materials prepared by instructor: 8-10 lessons, including basic conversational patterns, vocabulary development, conversation drill<br>Listening assignments: 8-10 per quarter; re-listening in class, correction of written assignments<br>Lab work: 2-3 times per quarter; taping, listening to tape, correction |
|  | J121,122,123 | As above |
|  | J191 | Purpose: to teach basic familiarity with more important general reference materials: encyclopedias and handbooks |
|  | J221,222,251, 252,261,262 | Reading materials selected as much as possible according to the interest of the class. |
| Yale | J25 | Bloch and Jorden, Spoken Japanese: complete except for 4 lessons of II<br>Jorden and Chaplin, Beginning Japanese (multilithed)<br>Naganuma I, with Kanji bk. and Word bk., part 1<br>Tapes of Bloch and Jorden, I, and Jorden and Chaplin, 10 lessons. |
|  | J40 | Naganuma I, with Kanji bk. and Word bk., part 2<br>Rose-Innes<br>Kenkyūsha or Sanseidō, Japanese-English dictionary<br>Hirota Eitaroo, Yoozi yoogo ziten<br>Tooyoo Kanzi ziten (Tyuukyoo Syuppan)<br>Syuukan Asahi: miscellaneous articles<br>Other selected reading materials |
|  | J50 | As above except for Naganuma |
| Syracuse | J1 | Elisséeff and Reischauer, Elementary Japanese for College Students |
| Univ. of So.Calif. | J110a,110b | Naganuma I, with grammar and glossary; 30 chapters each semester with tape recordings giving questions and answers on each chapter |
|  | J.214a,214b | Lesson materials specially prepared by instructor, with recordings of each chapter, and questions on constructions and expressions |
|  | J.210a,210b | Elisséeff and Reischauer, Elementary Japanese for College Students: approximately 20 chapters each semester |
|  | J.410a,410b | Elisséeff and Reischauer, Selected Japanese Texts, I: approx. 10 chapters per semester<br>Bungei shunjū, Chūō kōron, Shisō: selections<br>Tape recordings of above |

| INSTITUTION | COURSE NUMBER | TEXTS |
|---|---|---|
| Univ.of So.Calif. (contd.) | J.414a,414b | Bungei shunjū, Chūō kōron, Kaizō, Shisō |
| Army Lang. School | 30-OE-20 | Adjectives, US ALS, 1955<br>Area Readings, US ALS, 1956<br>Beginners' Dictionary of Chinese-Japanese Characters and Compounds, Rose-Innes, 1944<br>Composition Exercises, Naganuma's Basic Course, N.Naganuma, 1951<br>Composition Exercises, Book II, N.Naganuma, 1951<br>Dialogues for Military Subjects and Situations, US ALS, 1956<br>Exercises in Direct Military Interrogation, Vol I, USALS, 1955<br>Exercises in Direct Military Interrogation, Vol II, USALS, 1955<br>Exercises with Military Terrain Tables, I, US ALS, 1956<br>Exercises with Military Terrain Tables, II, US ALS, 1956<br>Film Teaching Units, I, US ALS, 1956<br>Film Teaching Units, II, US ALS, 1957<br>Film Teaching Units, III, US ALS, 1958<br>Full Translation of Standard Japanese Readers, Primer, USALS, 1958<br>Full Translation of Standard Japanese Readers, Reader I, US ALS, 1958<br>Full Translation of Standard Japanese Readers, Reader II, US ALS, 1958<br>Fuzambo's Comprehensive English-Japanese Dictionary, 1942<br>Grammar and Glossary, N. Naganuma, 1951<br>Hiragana Table and Flash Cards<br>History of Japan, US ALS, 1950<br>Information Booklet, US ALS, 1955<br>Japanese Movie Synopses, US ALS, 1953<br>Japanese National Defense, US ALS, 1957<br>Japanese Proverbs, US ALS, 1954<br>Japanese Songs, US ALS, 1958<br>KAIWA Text, US ALS, 1953<br>Kanji and Compounds, Primer and Reader I, US ALS, 1953<br>Kanji and the 214 Kanji Radicals, US ALS, 1952<br>Kanji Book I, N. Naganuma, 1951<br>Kanji Book II, N. Naganuma, 1951<br>Katakana Table and Flash Cards<br>Kenkyusha's New Japanese-English Dictionary, Y. Takenobu, 1942<br>Oral Drill Text, Primer, Vol.I, US ALS<br>Oral Drill Text, Primer, Vol II, US ALS<br>Oral Drill Text, Reader I, US ALS<br>Oral Drill Text, Reader II, US ALS<br>Particles, US ALS, 1955<br>Practical Situation Dialogues, US ALS, 1955<br>Sounds of Japanese Speech, US ALS, 1956<br>Standard Japanese Readers, Primer and Reader I, N. Naganuma, 1948 |

| INSTITUTION | COURSE NUMBER | TEXTS |
|---|---|---|
| Army Lang. School (contd.) | 30-OE-20 | Standard Japanese Readers, Reader II, N. Naganuma, 1948 |
| | | Student Speeches, US ALS, 1956 |
| | | Table of Comparative Grades, Military, US ALS, 1954 |
| | | UEDA's Daijiten, 1942 |
| | | Verbs, US ALS, 1955 |
| | | Verbs and Adjectives, Primer US ALS |
| | | Verbs and Adjectives, Reader I, US ALS |
| | | Word Book, Vol.I, N. Naganuma, 1951 |
| | | Word Book, Vol.II, N. Naganuma, 1951 |
| | 30-OE-80 | As above, but expanded in order to enable students to attain a wider knowledge of military, geographic, economic, cultural, and political information on Japan |
| Foreign Service Institute | Intensive Course | Jorden and Chaplin, Beginning Japanese |
| | | Tapes accompanying above |
| | | Miscellaneous supplementary material |
| | | Model city |
| | | Kenkyūsha, New Japanese-English Dictionary |
| | | Rose-Innes |
| | Advanced Japanese | Miscellaneous advanced materials: newspapers, magazines, NHK recordings, and specially prepared materials |
| Institute of Far Eastern Langs., Yale | J.301 | Bloch and Jorden, Spoken Japanese |
| | | Naganuma Readers |
| | | Supplementary mimeographed produced at IFEL |
| | | Gardner and Martin, Introduction to Modern Japanese Orthography: Kana |
| | | Okada, Keigo: Honorific Speech in Japan |
| Internat'l. Christian University | 111,12,13 | Naganuma I-IV, with grammar, glossary, word books, kanji books, kanji cards, vocabulary cards, phonograph records, basic exercises 1-2 |
| | | Exercises developed at ICU to go with above |
| | 114,115 | Naganuma V, with Word book, kanji book, vocabulary cards, kanji cards |
| | | Exercises developed at ICU to go with above |
| | | Mimeographed materials on various of the humanities, social sciences, and natural sciences |
| | | Tape recordings of above |
| | 101,102,103 | Naganuma I (part 1 and a few lessons in part 2), with grammar, glossary, kanji book, and basic exercises |
| | 201<br>202,203<br>204,205<br>221,222 | Texts used in the intensive course |

# THE MODERN LANGUAGE ASSOCIATION OF AMERICA

FOREIGN LANGUAGE PROGRAM RESEARCH CENTER
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CONFERENCE ON MATERIALS FOR TEACHING CHINESE AND JAPANESE

February 26-28, 1960

## THE PREPARATION OF GRADED MATERIALS IN JAPANESE

Edwin O. Reischauer, Harvard University

Since we at Harvard are just starting on a complete revision of our teaching materials in Japanese, I thought that I might best present in this work paper the problems we have faced and the principles we are thinking of following in this revision. While the interests and objectives of the various centers teaching Japanese differ, the problems they face are fundamentally the same, and therefore this working paper, despite its limited reference, may serve to open up the major aspects of the field for discussion (which in turn should prove very helpful to us in working out our own plans).

The reasons for the revision of our materials are:

1. Changes since the war which have outdated the kana orthography used, the forms of characters, some of the vocabulary, and the suitability of some of the subject matter.

2. A shift in our teaching methods — whereby we start with Rōmaji materials before going on to kana and characters.

3. Other imperfections which the materials had from the start.

### Student Body and Objectives

The nature of the materials used naturally depends upon the type of students expected and the purposes in teaching Japanese envisaged by the instructing group. Since, as in Chinese, learning to speak Japanese does not almost automatically lead to literacy, as it does in the phonetically written languages, major differences can occur in the relative emphasis put on reading and oral-aural skills.

Graduate students outnumber undergraduates about 3 to 1 in our classes, since few undergraduates have the motivation and the time to devote themselves to our semi-intensive introductory course (which while counting as a half-time program of 2 courses out of 4, actually takes more than half of the student's time). In terms of motivation, the following are the various categories of students we have in our classes:

1. Those with professional linguistic interest. These are very rare with us.

2. Those with general scholarly interests — the kind who say, "I regard the Japanese language as a tool." Most of our students fall into this category. Some have government research in mind, but more have academic

work and pure scholarship as their objectives. Perhaps a third of this group (including quite a few Chinese) have Chinese studies as their main interest and, being primarily concerned with learning to read Japanese, are sometimes resistant to learning to speak it.

3. Those whose interests are not primarily scholarly but who hope to live in Japan as missionaries or representatives of American government or business. Most of these have a strong interest both in becoming literate in Japanese and in learning to speak.

4. Those whose reasons for studying Japanese are not very clear. Most of the few we have in this category are undergraduates and Nisei, and they usually do poorly.

In developing our teaching materials we have had only groups 2 and 3 in mind. Fortunately their interests overlap, since the majority of those in 2 wish to develop adequate oral-aural skills as well as reading knowledge, and virtually all in group 3 are as interested in reading as in speaking. Group 1 is too small to take into consideration, and group 4 we feel is not worth worrying about.

The balance we have made between reading and oral-aural work has been dictated by two factors. The first is that reading interest somewhat outweights speaking interest among our studentsl The other is the conviction that, in study in this country as compared with study in Japan itself, beyond a fairly elementary level there is less return on instructional investment and student effort in learning to speak than in learning to read. In other words, while reading skills can be built up virtually as fast by study here as in Japan (assuming comparable levels of instructional skill), speaking skills beyond an elementary level will not progress as fast as when the student is living in a Japanese environment where the language can be used constantly. Moreover, reading skills can be put to use immediately in study and research, while speaking skills have little but amusement value in this country and are likely to deteriorate rapidly unless the student goes at once to Japan.

For these various reasons, reading has been given more emphasis than speaking in the overall program at Harvard. There is strong emphasis on speaking only in the first semi-intensive year. In this it occupies a little less than half of the student's time, and the objectives are limited to: 1) acquiring as correct a pronunciation as possible; and 2) building up a basic speaking knowledge which can be developed further when the student goes to Japan. Beyond the first year there are opportunities for further training in speaking, but it is not required.

One other feature of our materials is their steep gradient. This has been made purposely. It is our feeling that there is no place in Japanese language studies for persons lacking strong motivation and unusual ability. Adequate mastery of spoken and written Japanese requires much more effort and skill for English-speaking people than do mastery of the other European languages, and a mere smattering of Japanese is of much less value than a comparable knowledge of French, German or Italian. We therefore feel it a kindness to the students and a contribution to national and scholarly interests to make the Japanese program so difficult that students of low motivation and modest ability will be discouraged from entering it. (I realize, however, that such a stand may not be advisable where a significant proportion of the students are Nisei, for whom a smattering may have some value, or the financial security of the Japanese program in the university depends in part on the numbers attracted into it.)

## Elementary Materials

Our elementary materials are to consist primarily of graded reading materials in Rōmaji, which will introduce carefully selected vocabulary at a steady rate and the basic elements of the grammar. Past experience has shown us that it is advisable to separate the introduction of the basic grammar from the introduction of the problems of reading characters and _kana_. When the two are introduced together, the difficulties of the writing system obscure the problems of grammar for many students, and, for students who already know characters through the Chinese language (perhaps a third of our total), the problems are likely to be even greater. If the elementary materials are written in characters, they tend to rely too heavily on their knowledge of them, thus approaching Japanese as if it were Chinese written backwards and badly at that.

In preparing the elementary reading materials, the conversational needs of the class will be borne in mind. In other words, forms useful in elementary conversation and vocabulary useful in classroom conversational work will be introduced early. Thus the conversational work can be based on the vocabulary and grammar that is introduced in the Rōmaji reading lessons. Special conversational exercises will not be prepared in advance, these being left up to the individual teacher. There will, however, be exercises for translation from English into Japanese to illustrate grammatical points and the lessons will be put on tape for further aural training.

The following is a tentative outline of the sequence of major points to be introduced in the introductory Rōmaji lessons:

1. Simple question and answer statements with _desu_ and _de wa nai_ to form a basis for conversation at its simplest.

2. Verbs _aru_, _de aru_, _iru_, _ga nai_ and major forms of _desu_ and -_masu_, so that a variety of conversational questions and statements can be made.

3. Transitive and intransitive verbs and most of the postpositions not already introduced.

4. _Te_ and _ta_ forms of verbs, including -_te iru_ and -_te aru_ forms; also the polite imperatives _nasai_ and _kudasai_. By this time a braod variety of simple conversational sentences will be possible.

5. Verbal postpositions (*no de*, *ga*, -*te kara*, etc.) and negative forms of verbs (*inai*, *ikanai*).

6. Relative clauses, also uses of *no desu* (*n'desu*) and *no de wa nai*.

7. Basic forms and uses of "adjectives" (adjectival verbs).

8. Conditional forms (-*tara*, *to*, -*eba*, -*te mo*, etc.) and purpose-intention forms (-*tai*, *tsumori*, *hoshii*, *mi ni itta*).

9. Potential forms (*mieru*, *dekiru*), and uses of *to* with *yū*, *omou*, *mieru*, *onaji*, *chigau*, etc.

10. Demonstrative and interrogative pronouns and their uses.

11. Polite conversational forms (*irassharu*, *gozaimasu*, etc.) and *aisatsu* phrases (*o-machidō-sama*, etc.). The idea is that at this stage the student should be ready for a new conversational break-through from simple questions and answers (without thought of politeness problems) to standard polite usages.

12. Numbering systems, cardinal and ordinal.

13. Vocabulary and expressions of time.

14. Compound verbs (*nakidasu*, etc.) and "auxiliary verbs" (*wakatte kuru*, *wasurete shimatta*, etc.), including "directional verbs" such as *ageru*, *kureru*, *itadaku*, *morau* as these are used after -*te* forms.

15. Passive and causative forms and their uses.

16. Uses of *sō*, *yō*, *rashii*, and *ka* (*kuru ka dō ka*, *ka mo shiremasen*, etc.)

17. Compound postpositions (*ni tsuite*, *ni yotte*); also *ni suru* and *to suru*, *tokoro*, etc.

18. Interrogative pronouns used with *ka*, *demo*, *mo*, and -*te mo*.

19. Simple imperatives (polite imperatives come in 4, so these less common forms can be delayed to this late date); and *ikō*, *tabeyō* forms (again *mashō* and *deshō* came in 2, so this delay will not cause conversational difficulty); *tame*, *hazu*, *ne*, *yo*, *so*, *tomo*, *mon' ka*.

20. Adjective comparisons, and also uses of *hodo*, *gurai*, *ga ii*, -*te mo ii*, *de ii*.

21 and following: Various other points that seem worth including in this first series of lessons.

This sequence of major points may be spread out into longer series of lessons. The order also may be rearranged somewhat. The chief effort, however, will be to bunch related matters in order to aid the student in learning and to present the conversationally more useful things before those of lesser conversational significance. Because of the need to cover repeatedly certain grammatical points, the lessons will probably have to be made up of unrelated sentences rather than being worked out as united stories. (The high motivation and adult nature of the student body makes "story" interest less necessary.) The vocabulary will be heavily slanted toward conversationally useful things.

In choosing vocabulary for these and later lessons, various word frequency lists will of course be used, but, in view of classroom conversational needs and the fact that the students' interests and backgrounds will not be those of an "average" Japanese reader, the frequency lists will not be adhered to very strictly. Efforts will be made to repeat all words several times for mnemonic purposes. Vocabularies and grammar explanations will, of course, accompany all lessons.

## "Intermediate" Materials

Following the Rōmaji lessons will come a longer series introducing characters and kana. Everything will be written according to normal usage — that is, words usually written in characters will not be written in kana, since it seems a needless burden to have the students learn to read in a style not commonly used in writing.

Hiragana will be taught the students while they are still going through the latter part of the preceding series, so the new series will start with a full use of them. It will also introduce at a uniform rate (10 to 20 per lesson) new Chinese characters selected exclusively from the 1850 tōyō kanji, starting with the graphically simpler and most common ones and continuing on to less used and graphically more difficult ones. If enough material is prepared at this level, all 1850 may be used, but more probably the coverage will not go far beyond the 881 essential ones selected by the Education Ministry. Katakana will also be introduced after the student has a firm grasp on hiragana. The introduction of hiragana before katakana (the reverse of the Japanese educational system) is because hiragana is so much more used and therefore is the system the student should know best.

These lessons will from the start make use of all of the grammar already learned in the Rōmaji section and will add other new grammar and idioms bit by bit. Care will be taken to see that all the grammatical points made in the first section are repeated, but of course these will come in any sequence that proves convenient. Some of the lessons will be built around certain grammatical problems or around groups of idioms that logically go together.

The lack of characters will put strict limitation on the vocabulary in the early lessons of this series, but perhaps not hopelessly so, since all words normally written in hiragana covered in the Rōmaji lessons can be used from the start. The vocabulary problem would suggest the advisability of the early introduction of katakana, so that words and names of Occidental origin can be freely used. (The writing of these in hiragana should be avoided as being not customary.) Almost all of the vocabulary used in the Rōmaji lessons would be repeated (though of course not in the same sequence), but certain words, such as kokuban ("blackboard"), for example, which are probably desirable in the first section for classroom conversational purposes, might be dropped as of minor value in reading. Character restrictions may make it necessary to make the early lessons unrelated sentences, but some if not all of the other lessons should be cast as stories or essays.

One grave problem is the kana orthography and form (standard or simplified) of the characters to be used. The chief emphasis should be on contemporary usages -- that is the modern simplified orthography and characters. However, since the older orthography and characters still creep into contemporary books and articles and even more into letter writing and the like, and since our future scholars (student type 2) and even our future residents in Japan (student type 3) are likely to be reading prewar materials, it is imperative that they learn the older forms too. We expect to list in the vocabularies the standard forms of the characters along with the simplified and ask the students to learn both. We also expect to have some lessons written in standard characters and traditional orthography, though more of the lessons will use the other forms.

It will probably prove necessary also to have a few lessons using katakana instead of hiragana, since use of katakana only for Western words and names may not prove adequate to drum it into the students' heads. We also have found it desirable to have some lessons in clear handwriting, instead of in print, since handwritten forms do look a little different from print, and the students must have some familiarity with them. Thus the lessons in this section will vary between 1) those in simplified orthography and characters (the majority) and those in traditional orthography and characters; 2) those using hiragana (most) and those using katakana; and 3) those in print (the majority) and those in handwriting.

The lessons will be put on tape for aural training. They will be accompanied by vocabularies and grammar notes on new points. The accompanying conversation work will naturally take advantage of the new grammar and the new vocabulary, but no special conversational materials will be prepared. There may also be translation exercises from English into Japanese for drill in the new grammar and idioms.

## "Advanced" Materials

It is expected that the "elementary materials" will occupy about a half of the first semi-intensive semester of study. The intermediate materials, depending on their length (i.e. 800 characters or considerably more), will take the rest of that semester and half or more of the next semi-intensive semester, meaning that the students will be ready for more advanced materials before the end of the second semester or at least by the beginning of the second year, (which at Harvard is non-intensive, i.e. one quarter of a student's program).

The "advanced" materials to be used at this stage will be selections from contemporary and prewar (but, of course, modern) Japanese writings. The postwar materials will presumably be in the modern simplified orthography and characters, the prewar materials in the traditional orthography and characters. Particular care will have to be taken in making the first few selections, so that the jump in vocabulary level and idiom will not be traumatically difficult. In fact, some deletions and even a little editing may prove necessary. However the objective should be to present a series of authentic and, if possible, stylistically good Japanese writings (including belles lettres as well as expository prose), which will build up at a reasonable rate the student's vocabulary, grasp of grammar and idiom, and general command of written Japanese. If possible, the selections should be interesting and the sort of subject matter and material that the students would most like to read. Selections should probably come largely from magazine articles, novels, newspapers and scholarly works -- perhaps in about that order quantitatively.

It would probably be advisable to have vocabularies and grammar notes to cover the new words and idioms as they are encountered. It may be argued that by this stage the student should be learning to depend on dictionaries for these, but this would probably slow the progress of the class too much, and, in any case, the student will find himself consulting dictionaries often enough for the words introduced earlier but now gone from his memory. The vocabularies might well distinguish by some symbol between words which are more important to memorize (i.e. those relatively high on the frequency counts or repeated in these particular materials) and those less worth remembering.

Assuming that enough materials of this type were prepared for a year or two of reading, no further graded materials would be needed. The students would be far enough along to be able to tackle further materials in the "raw" and very likely on their own, and their interests would probably be diverging so widely that it would not be advisable to try to keep them all together in a set channel.

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# WORK-PAPER ON AUDIO-VISUAL AIDS FOR JAPANESE

Samuel E. Martin, Yale University

This paper will of necessity be brief and largely programmatic. Existing materials are scanty and of limited availability. Since the paper on Chinese covers in detail certain technical aspects, I shall content myself with a few personal comments on the general use of audio-visual aids and some specific suggestions with respect to Japanese.

In the first place, the discussion can be limited to aids directly related to language learning; those primarily useful for cultural background are not of concern here. My own reaction to the use of materials aiming at cultural knowledge rather than language skills is rather negative for the following reasons: 1) The writing system of Japanese, together with certain problems built into the language itself (a vast number of homonyms and synonyms tied in with a much larger vocabulary load than is needed for a reading knowledge of most languages), makes the job of learning to speak and read Japanese require at least three times as much from the student and the teacher as a European language course requires. There is barely time, even in an intensive course, to impart the language skills themselves; there is no time for frills or diversions. Cultural material, though stimulating and valuable, must, in my opinion, be relegated to extra-curricular hours, if the student is really to be taught the language. At Yale we find that even brush calligraphy, which serves a number of worthwhile ends, is too time-consuming to be allowed one of our regular course hours; instead, we devote an extra hour each week to brush practice for those students who wish it. 2) The student must bring his own motivation for learning the language to class with him; while we language teachers must keep the classes interesting in order to do our job effectively, it is not our job to provide either the incentives or the rewards for acquiring a knowledge of the language. We assume the student is mature enough to have his own incentives; the rewards will be there to the extent that we give him, as rapidly and effectively as possible, the tools with which to enjoy them. What he does with the language after that is not our responsibility. I stress these points, because teaching a language is usually harder and duller than teaching a culture; it is always more pleasant to show (and watch) travelog slides than to inculcate (and acquire) paradigmatic forms or the complicated shapes of Chinese characters.

In the second place, I should like to emphasize that mechanical equipment cannot take the place of teachers. It seems to be easier, these days, to get money for hardware than to get money for people; moreover, the number of trained and available tutors is quite small (for who is training them and making them available?), and their services must be supplemented when possible. But language learning is an intensely personal experience, and machines are seldom more than a partly adequate surrogate for an unavailable teacher. Naive efforts to completely depersonalize and mechanize the learning process are probably doomed to failure, at least with respect to language. Given these reservations, however, we can say that there are many valuable uses for mechanical equipment, both during the classroom hours and during the time when the student is away from the tutor. Let us consider several of these.

1) One of the oldest, cheapest, and most ubiquitous piece of audio-visual equipment is BLACKBOARD AND CHALK. In the hands of a clever and interested tutor, these can be put to some surprisingly effective uses, similar to the old-fashioned CHALK TALK. Line drawings of situations, maps and diagrams filled in unit-by-unit, faces and figures to be completed, puzzles of the situation-diagram type — these can all be used to give an air of reality to an accompanying patter (explanations, directions, questions-and-answers) carefully prepared to work in the vocabulary and grammar points being taught. The prime need here is careful preparation: the chalk-talk must have an air of spontaneity when presented, but to achieve that air (as well as its underlying purpose), considerable forethought and planning are essential. We could use a packaged product, designed to supplement some standard textbook (such as the forthcoming Jorden-Ito Beginning Japanese) lesson by lesson. The material would consist of directions for various chalk-talk situations together with detailed patter or patter suggestions, leaving it up to the individual tutor to adapt the package to his own needs and abilities. The material should not be included in the textbook itself, since much of its psychological value is lost if it is not presented directly by the teacher.

2) Of similar nature are PICTURE BOOKS that can be used to stimulate classroom conversation. Picture dictionaries designed for children can be used — there are several available in the United States and a couple have been published in Japan; but many tutors like to go through magazines, clipping out those pictures for which they foresee a role in covering current lesson material. Here again, it would be preferable to have a packaged product, directly related lesson-by-lesson to the basic course, complete with directions for the best application of the picture-conversation technique.

3) If there is a permanent classroom and if space permits, MODELS are very useful, especially for small groups. The language school at the American Embassy in Tokyo makes good use of a model town that includes easily recognizable types of buildings, streets, conveyances, and so forth. These components can be played with, rearranged, tagged with small signs in Japanese script, and used for all sorts of conversation situations. Again, a pre-packaged model (one that is built to emphasize specifically Japanese situations) would be very useful, as would be directions for making and using a model of that sort.

4) It would be handy to have some large, pictorial, sketch-type MAPS, especially for the vicinity of Tokyo and Kyoto. (The aim, of course, is not primarily cultural, but merely to tie the language-learning down to real and useful situations. Maps of New York or San Francisco could also be used.)

5) Tutors who, as they all should do, stick rigorously to the rule only Japanese in the drillroom, will find HAND-PUPPETS useful to illustrate short model conversations, e.g. those contained in the Supplements to the lessons in the Jorden-Ito material. It would be nice to have a series of these puppets, ready-made and readily available.

6) Most students like FLASH-CARDS for the learning of kanji. (Available are flash-cards to accompany the Naganuma reader and the Vaccari series.) Their usefulness seems to depend on the individual student and his learning processes. On the whole, I think they are more valuable when the student makes his own cards, putting down only that information about each character that is important to him at the current stage of his work. Existing cards are inadequate in a number of ways: They are usually brush-drawn or printed, though pen-written characters are more useful to the student; they often contain not only more information than the student needs or can digest at the time he first meets the character, but sometimes include rare and useless compounds or readings, and misleading or even erroneous information, especially with respect to problems of send-off kana (okurigana) and nigori readings. Flash-cards made from Sakade's new book would be superior to those currently available, but this material could be improved upon, too.

7) BRUSH-AND-INK SETS are fun for the students, if you can arrange an extra-curricular hour for calligraphy practice, using old newspaper-strips for writing paper, as is done in Japan. No available materials teach (or even mention) the DYNAMICS of writing Chinese characters. Mere stroke-order is insufficient information to do justice to the individual shapes; more attention should be paid to spacing (graph-paper is a help), shading and pressure (chalk and soft-lead pencils surpass pens, and the "magic slate" is excellent), and — most important — rhythm (which follows for each character a system of immediate-constituency that wants further analysis and codification). For copying practice, a PANTOGRAPH would be useful; thin but strong translucent paper placed over the models is also good.

8) Of audio aids, PHONOGRAPH RECORDS are still the most convenient for home use. Course material on records is largely limited to the 78 rpm series for Book I of Spoken Japanese, available from Holt. The EUP textbook Teach Yourself Japanese (by Dunn and Yanada) is supposed to be accompanied by LP records shortly. There are also some older courses, such as the Linguaphone. PRE-RECORDED TAPES are not regularly available on a commercial basis, but most schools have made their own tapes of lesson materials; in general, they are willing to make copies for other institutions, if time and compensation permit. It would be good if

we were to accompany each serious course with a carefully recorded tape (and perhaps LP records) that could be purchased through regular channels (with the recording perhaps subsidized by NDEA). The Jorden-Ito text soon to be published would be an ideal starting point.

Some of the tapes I have heard in different university collections have shocked me by their disregard of certain fundamental rules, so let me call attention to these rules:

(a) Material should only be recorded by a native speaker, preferably with a good Tokyo accent. This is true whether the students are regularly tutored by that sort of person or not.

(b) The native speaker must speak with natural, unaffected pronunciation; he must not be unduly influenced by (often false) notions of what is "standard" or "correct". A careful selection of the recording speakers will insure that the speech is "standard Japanese", i.e. educated uptown-Tokyo speech.

(c) The native speaker must NEVER, NEVER slow down below a normal conversational speed. The effect is weirder than he realizes and the result is a distinct disservice to the student, who either learns to speak up-to-tempo from the very beginning or remains something of a cripple in the language forever after.

We might add that it would be preferable, when possible, to have a variety of speakers of different sexes and age levels, but with fairly homogeneous speech habits. Some intermediate-level tapes can be made with a greater variety of non-standard speech, but for listening rather than imitating. At the advanced level, tapes of JAPANESE RADIO BROADCASTS can be used; the Japan Broadcasting Company has proved very cooperative and helpful in supplying such tapes from time to time. I wish someone would work out an advanced course based on carefully edited excerpts from radio broadcasts, with sufficient advance build-up to the vocabulary used. Unfortunately, much of the material seems ephemeral in content, so that by the time the course would be ready the best parts might already seem "dated".

9) The advent of the SYNCHRO-READER opens all sorts of possibilities. Within the next ten years we may wish to publish our basic text materials in loose-leaf form with simultaneous recording of the material on the same page. This will surely be more effective than either records or tape.

10) MOTION PICTURES have drawbacks. Those with Japanese sound-tracks are seldom available in this country in 16mm, and the language used is often too complicated and/or sloppy for the beginning student to derive much from it except a feeling of frustration. Films can be used, however, for advanced

groups, if the scripts are obtained and studied in advance — or between two successive showings (probably the better technique). Another way films can be used is to run them with the sound-track dead, letting tutors fill in (by tape or live) a substitute script, planned in such a way that it does not strain the student's vocabulary and grammar level. Most of these techniques involve so much time, effort, and expense, that they usually seem impractical for small groups. A list of educational films available for rental can be obtained from the Asia Society. We could, no doubt, arrange for the import of others from Japan, given financial support.

11) The VIDEOTAPE recorder and playback hold promise of some very interesting applications in the future. Once the cost becomes less prohibitive, we ought to be able to get tapes of Japanese telecasts and play them in our classrooms here. (Perhaps a pilot project of this sort could be sponsored in the near future). There is great variety available in Japan's TV fare, and it ought to be possible to concoct a very good intermediate-advanced course based largely on excerpts from this.

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In conclusion, I might caution that the machine is only as good as its programming; our primary problem is not with the tape, but with what to put on it. And failure to take into full account the current, and rapidly changing, language developments and research within Japan would be, frankly, to shortchange both the student and the teacher.

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# RESEARCH NEEDED FOR THE PRODUCTION OF TEACHING MATERIALS

Fumiko Koide, International Christian University

## Introduction

Assuming that this conference is concerned with language education, this paper will deal not with area study but only with the teaching of Japanese to English-speaking students at the graduate and junior and senior levels.

Language education can be divided into two stages, one the so-called foundation for everyone regardless of his specific interest, the other, training for his field of specialization. We should, of course, think of the first stage first of all. However, it is important to keep in mind the second stage when we plan for the first stage. It can be roughly assumed that the first stage makes the student able to communicate in Japanese, to read ordinary non-technical publications, and to write simply such things as letters, a diary, etc. The second stage is to make him prepared for his special field, putting an emphasis on the learning of technical terms so that he may be able to read and write technical articles including pre-war publications which include characters not among the basic characters.

It is worth mentioning here that we should think of teaching in terms of both what to teach and how to teach because these two are always correlated very closely.

## 1. The first stage

### a) What to teach in the first stage

When we think of teaching materials we are apt to think of textbooks first. However, it is very dangerous to compile or even discuss such textbooks without knowing what to teach. The first thing we have to do is to make a study of what is needed for the first stage:

How much phonetic training should be given?
What kind of vocabulary should be given?
How many and which characters should be taught?
What sort of sentence-patterns are necessary?

Japanese pronunciation is not at all difficult. However, it should not be neglected. Native Japanese teachers without any phonetic training are apt to neglect to give phonetic training to students because they do not know how to explain Japanese phonetics and also always expect and accept the foreign accent of students. On the other hand, English-speaking teachers with a good training phonetically are apt to be more fussy than necessary. Of course, the latter is better than the former.

Study is necessary in order to determine the desirable limits of phonetic training. Is it necessary to spend time on distinguishing the initial (g) and the the intervocalic g (n) when most younger Japanese are losing the distinction between them? Is it necessary to point out the devoicing of high-vowels in the beginning stage? Thanks to the Japanese syllabary, which is fairly simple, there are not many allophones in one individual's speech. However, there is a great variation between different persons. It needs the help of trained phoneticians to study if a majority of Japanese use (z) or (dz) for / z /, if / r / is really a flap sound as it is usually said, and so on. Phonetic training can be done most efficiantly and economically in the very beginning stage. If it is done carefully, it does not take more than two weeks for the average American student to master Japanese pronunciation.

Fortunately, concerning the teaching of characters, there is the list of 1,850 so-called basic characters. It is not very difficult to select about a thousand of that list for the first stage, and it does not matter too much which thousand are selected. The study of the ways of reading these characters is, of course, a different thing. It is necessary to study how to limit or how to expand the ways of reading.

Some work has been done in Japan concerning the basic vocabulary.[1] However, it is dangerous to depend on this work. First of all, most of this work was done by individuals, which means it may be perilously subjective. Another reason why it is dangerous to use such researches for our purpose is that the basic vocabulary for native-speakers is not necessarily good for non-natives. For example, children's language is not important for our purpose. Some words for kitchen utensils may not be necessary. From our point of view it is necessary to study the vocabulary problems thoroughly.

How to find the basic vocabulary is not very simple. One way would be based on the work done already. Another way would be to pick words from present-day publications, especially newspapers and magazines, find out their frequency and then ask several Japanese to pick out about 5,000 basic words. Kokugoshingikai (the Advisory Commission for Research in the Japanese Language) and Kokuritsu

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[1] Doi, K.: Kiso Nihongo (Basic Japanese), 1943
Kakito, M.: Kihon Goigaku (Basic Vocabulary), 1938
Kokuritsu Kokugo Kenkyujo: Fujin Zasshi-no Yoogo (Words in Women's Magazines), 1953

Kokugo Kenkyujo (the National Language Research Institute) will be of help.

As for the basic sentence pattern, practically speaking, there is no research to help us. We have to start from the beginning. We cannot depend only on the written materials for getting the sentence structure because there is quite a difference between the spoken language and the written language. The writer has done some work recently and was very encouraged because sentence patterns in Japanese seem to her much more simple than she had thought. This research can be done more easily than for vocabulary. Tape-recorded materials can be obtained for this purpose with the help of NHK (the Broadcasting Corporation of Japan).

When these four areas have been explored, we can prepare the grammars and dictionaries which are needed so badly now. The dictionaries available right now are by no means good for non-natives because of the following reasons:

1. They do not give the most basic words because natives do not look for them in dictionaries.

2. They include too many characters for beginning students.

3. They do not show how to use words.

The grammars now available also present problems. Needless to say, the grammars written for natives are not good for our purposes. However, even the grammars in English meant for non-native speakers are not very good either. Most of them are more complicated than necessary. They discourage students instead of helping them. To be most useful, grammars should employ simple terms.

Ideally, the grammars and dictionaries should be planned on the same principles in order not to confuse the students.

Textbooks can come later because if the teacher knows what to teach and how to teach, he can always modify the textbooks available. And, as a matter of fact, there are quite a few textbooks available. They may not be perfect for everyone. However, to tell the truth, textbooks may safely be selected with the interests of the students primarily in mind, and then used according to the discretion of the teacher.

b) How to teach in the first stage.

It is very difficult to generalize about how to teach. This requires a great deal of study. It may differ depending on the type of number of students. It may differ depending on the place you teach, whether in the United States or in Japan.

In this connection, it is important to consider whether it is better to do language education concurrently with the area studies, or to do the language education intensively first, before the area studies are begun. In the case of the latter, how long should the teaching be devoted to only language education, one semester or one year? This problem may involve not only academic questions but also administrative ones.

Another problem to study is whether it is desirable that the same teacher teach both modern language and classical language. The professor for classical studies may not necessarily be good for modern language, and vice versa. How to meet the increased demand for teachers will be another thing to study.

c) Audio-visual materials

What sort of audio-visual materials are needed? Recorded lessons will definitely be a great help, but for the attendant texts research is required into which Roman-letter system should be used, how the tones should be shown, how the morphophonemic changes should be shown, and so on.

It is definitely necessary to prepare some pictures or slides to show Japanese things which are hard to find in this country. However, using too many of these is sometimes a harm rather than a help, especially at the university level. It requires some study to determine how many should be used and how they should be prepared. It is not fair to ask each professor to prepare them. It requires time and a systematic approach.

2. The second stage

1. What to teach in the second stage.

Assuming that the phonetic training, basic vocabulary, basic sentence-pattern and basic characters are mastered in the first stage, the main job in the second stage is to enlarge the vocabulary and knowledge of characters. The remainder of the basic characters should be given first of all. In addition, it is necessary to take up the characters used for technical terms and also for proper names, because names seem to be always a headache for students in Far Eastern Studies.

It may not be necessary to repeat that it is very important that technical terms be gained in this stage. Some kind of glossary with proper names and characters is very helpful for this purpose. Is it possible to have a glossary covering all fields? Or is it necessary to have a glossary for each field? This is a very important problem to study.

2. How to teach.

In this stage it is very necessary to keep close contact with area studies. Professors of area studies will be very good teachers in this stage.

It is very desirable to get the help of Japanese exchange scholars or students if they are available. If they are not available, it may be possible to get recorded lectures given over the radio or in Japanese universities. Glossaries should accompany them.

## 3. Conclusion

The writer personally is very glad that Japanese was selected as a critical language and that it is being made possible for more people in this country to study it. It will bring a very good result without any question. She hopes American scholars and Japanese scholars will keep close contact and work together to improve the teaching of Japanese as a foreign language.

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## APPENDIX

### The List of Studies needed

Basic research:

- Phonology - Phonemes
  - Intonation
  - Symbols to be used
- Syntax - Word-order
  - Styles

Basic materials:

- Basic vocabulary
- Basic sentence structure
- Basic characters

Teaching materials:

- Grammar
- Dictionary (with about ten thousand words and grammatical notes)
- Pattern-practice exercises
- Recorded materials for specialization (accompanied by glossaries)
- Pictures and slides to show Japanese culture
- Kanji-book